A Critical Analysis of the Sutta Nipāta - N.A.Jayawikrama

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Postcript

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

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N. A. Jayawickrama

(We are grateful to Prof. Jayawickrama for permission to serialise his doctoral thesis which was accepted by the University of London in 1947 under its full title of "A critical analysis of the Pali Sutta Nipāta illustrating its gradual growth". It was subsequently serialised in the Ceylon University Review-1943-67-in its issues January 1948 to April 1951.)

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A—Anguttara Nikāya (PTS, 6 vols. 1885-1910, 1956-61)

BSk-Buddhist Sanskrit and a memblanus alluser like mode in bersioch

DA—Dīgha Nikāya (PTS, 3 vols. 1889, 1903, 1910; 1967, 1967, 1960)

H. O. S.—Harvard Oriental Series

I.H.Q.—the Indian Historical Quarterly (Calcutta, 1925-63)

M-Majjhima Nikāya (PTS, 4 vols. 1887-1925, 1960-74)

Miln-Milindapañha (PTS, 1880, 1963)

Pj—Paramatthajotikā II (=Suttanipāta Commentary II, PTS, 1917, 1966)

Pug—Puggalapaññatti (PTS, 1883, 1972) Famaboll (Translation to Sum Alperto, S

Pv-Petavatthu (PTS, 1889)

S—Samyutta Nikāya (PTS, 6 vols. 1884-1904; 1960-73)

S.B.E.—Sacred Books of the East series

Sn—Suttanipāta (PTS, 1913, 1965)

SnA I—Suttanipāta Commentary I (PTS, 1916, 1966)

Th. 1—Theragāthā; Th. 2—Therīgāthā (PTS, 1883, 1966)

The Criteria for the Analysis of the Sutta Nipāta

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The Sutta Nipāta contains older and younger material side by side. The Atthaka and the Pārāyana Vaggas preserve, on the whole, older compositions. Many suttas included in the other three vaggas too can be established, without doubt, to belong to an equally old, or perhaps older stratum.

It is our present task to investigate whether the compilation of the Sutta Nipāta (as a separate work) was done by gradual stages or was the work of a single editor. It is certain that at least its last two vaggas had a separate existence prior to their being incorporated in the Sutta Nipāta, for there are numerous references to them in Pali, Buddhist

Sanskrit and Chinese works, with no mention of the Sutta Nipāta at all. Parts of the rest of the vaggas too appear to have existed in separate groups, but the Sutta Nipāta, as it is preserved now, is a compilation of a comparatively later date. The lateness of the compilation has no bearing whatsoever on the date of its constituent suttas. Chalmers, in his translation of the Sutta Nipāta entitled, Buddha's Teaching in H.O.S. Vol., 37, p. xvi. remarks, "the ascertained stages of growth of a compiled book" by no means settle the relative date of composition of its contents. a question for solution of which internal evidence must be invoked, for what it is worth." The internal evidence which helps to establish the relative date of composition of the suttas is primarily linguistic, but this alone is not sufficient. A study of the contents of the Sutta Nipāta along with its metre and style, doctrinal developments, and social conditions depicted in them will greatly supplement whatever information linguistic evidence yields. Whenever external evidence is available in support of internal evidence more definite results can be achieved.

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Linguistic evidence consists mainly of an analysis of words in their form and use, of tenses, of syntax and of vocabulary. As early as 1880 Fausböll (Translation to Sutta Nipāta, S. B. E. vol. X, pp. xi. ff.) has pointed out, "We not only find here what we meet with in other Pali poetry, the fuller Vedic forms of nouns and verbs in the plural...the shorter Vedic plural and the instrumental singular of nouns...Vedic infinitives,...contracted (or sometimes old) forms,...by the side of protracted forms, but also some unusual (sometimes old) forms and words...We also find tmesis as in the Vedas...Sometimes we meet with difficult and irregular constructions, and very condensed expressions." He also notes that the parts of the Sutta Nipāta containing these "irregularities" are much older than the suttas in which the language is fluent and the verses are melodious. This practically covers the whole field of linguistic evidence that can be gleaned in the Sutta Nipāta.

A comparison of the linguistic peculiarities of the various parts of the Sutta Nipāta with Vedic, the language of the Brāhmaṇas, Pali of the gāthā-literature, Canonical prose, and Classical Sanskrit helps in some degree to fix the relative dates of the suttas. It has been already stressed that the importance of linguistic data should not be over-estimated, for, these alone without other corroborative evidence are not of very great value. More definite conclusions can be drawn when they are supported by other internal and external evidence.

Other internal evidence consists of metre and style, doctrinal developments and ideology, and social conditions. As a rule, metre is no proper criterion of judgment in assigning relative dates to Pali poetry. The majority of the metres employed in Pali is to be met with in earlier literature both Vedic and early Sanskritic. The developments and modifications that earlier existing metres have undergone in Pali may lead to some valuable information; but such changes invariably have their parallels in earlier Sanskritic literature. This minimises the importance of any evidence from this source. The changes in metre from which somewhat definite inferences could be drawn are to be met with only in very late Pali poetry; e.g., the Ceylon Chronicles.

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The most popular metre in the Sutta Nipāta is Anuṣṭubh Śloka. There are no less than 562 stanzas in anuṣṭubh metre, in addition to 54 modified anuṣṭubh ślokas in the Vatthu-gāthā of the Pārāyana, making a total of 616 stanzas. (Vide Helmer Smith: "Metres of Sutta Nipāta". Pj. II. 3, pp. 637-644). Next comes triṣṭubh metre, which is employed in 374, stanzas. There are also 29 stanzas in āryā metre, and 117 in vaitālīya and its allied metres, aupacchandasika and vegavatī. Of these 117 stanzas only 15 are in pure vaitālīya, 41 are in aupacchandasika, 16 in vegavatī and the other 45 in mixed vaitālīya.

Chalmers, (ibid, p. xvii) maintains that anuştubh is later than triştubh and quotes the example of the four Atthakas in tristubh metre preceded by the Kāma Sutta in anuştubh śloka, stating that it "manifestly forms a late preface to the Atthaka Vagga as a re-edited whole." He notes the change of metre in Sāriputta Sutta and remarks that "the equally edifying ślokas Nos. 955-62 suggest an editorial preamble to the vigorous triṣṭubhs with which the Atthaka Vagga ends." He refers to the only Triṣṭubh verse in Dvayatānupassanā Sutta (Sn. 728), and the triṣṭubhs that are freely distributed in the Pārāyana as being much older than the rest of the stanzas in those sections which he calls "scholastic accretions." He advances another hypothesis that "the longer the metrical line the later is the composition likely to have been." (ibid).

Keith (A History of Sanskrit Literature, p. 417), too, believes that the longer metrical line is a later development in Classical Sanskrit. Thus, it may be possible, purely on theoretical grounds, that those verses

of the Sutta Nipāta in āryā, vaitālīya, aupacchandasika, vegavatī and mixed vaitālīya metres belong to a later stage of composition. Yet, there is no reason to assume that all the stanzas in the historically earlier triṣṭubh and anuṣṭubh metres are anterior to those written in later metres.

Unlike other metres āryā and vaitālīya are measured by the number of morae. (Vide Macdonell, A Vedic Grammar for Students, p. 436 n. 2). These metres in which the sum-total of morae was absolutely fixed probably developed from popular poetry according to Keith (op. cit. p. 418) and belong to the Classical epoch. Thus, Chalmers' hypothesis is generally applicable to the verses of the Sutta Nipāta though he is not quite correct in the application of his hypothesis to triṣtubh and anuṣṭubh metres.

Both tristubh and anuştubh metres can be traced back to Vedic. About 40 per cent. of the stanzas in the Rgveda are written in tristubh, whereas anuştubh constitutes only about 8 to 9 per cent. (Vide Macdonell, op. cit. pp. 438 ff.). Though the former is very popular in the Rgveda the latter is the most predominant metre in the post-Vedic period (Macdonell, ibid). Thus, generally anuştubh ślokas in the Sutta Nipāta may be expected to be later than the tristubh verses. Here, the hypothesis regarding the length of the metrical line is inapplicable, as tristubh which is considered older has a longer metrical line (4 X 11) than anuştubh (4 X 8). Moreover, over 86 per cent. of the stanzas in the Sutta Nipāta are written in these two metres, and the number of stanzas written in other metres is just under 14 per cent. This being the case, Chalmers' suggestion, however true it may be, is of no great practical importance.

The historical order of these metres occurring in the Sutta Nipāta would be 1. triṣṭubh and anuṣṭubh, 2. āryā, vaitālīya, aupacchandasika, vegavatī and mixed vaitālīya. There is no guarantee whatsoever that stanzas written in older metres are necessarily earlier than those in later metres. Therefore, metre by itself is no sound criterion for fixing relative dates, and it only forms a very useful source of confirmatory evidence.

5

Style like metre, is closely allied to linguistic evidence. As the Sutta Nipāta is not a homogeneous work, its style varies in its different sections. Its poems range from simple popular ballads like the Dhaniya and Kasibhāradvāja Suttas to scholastic compositions like the Dvayatānupassanā Sutta. It also contains simple narratives like the Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas or the Vatthu-gāthā of the Nālaka Sutta and Pārāyana Vagga as well as dialogue-ballads of various types, besides didactic poems like the Kiņisīla or Dhanimacariya Suttas in which the editorial

hand is keenly felt. A simple and easy style unhampered by poetic embellishments, excessive rhythm and metrical perfection suggests an early composition rather than a later one. The use of excessive alliteration, assonance, and śleśa (word-play) and all such accompaniments of a 'heavy style' is generally a sign of lateness. The use of such poetical devices is greatly limited in the sections of the *Suita Nipāta*, which from other evidence can be classed as very early.

The oft recurring refrain belongs to the field of popular poetry of all periods. It is also probable that the ballads in which the dialogue element predominates (e.g., suttas like the Dhaniya and Hemavata; and not the quasi-dialogue ballads in which an interlocutor asks a question and the Buddha is seen replying with a long uninterrupted discourse), were dramatised and became widely popular. These two facts do not lead to any clue regarding the relative dates of poems, but it could be noticed that style goes hand in hand with metre to support linguistic data, and that it is very useful as a criterion for fixing relative dates for these ballads.

The form in which these suttas are found (viz., entirely in verse, or mixed verse and prose, etc.) is sometimes helpful as a criterion.

6

Doctrinal developments, generally, are a good index to the time of composition of individual sections, rather than of a work as a whole. This is true of the majority of the works of the Pali Canon, as they contain material drawn from more than one stratum. No well-defined developments as such are to be noticed in the older ballads of the Sutta Nipāta, but a gradual change can be marked in the later ones. Some fundamental concepts already found in the earlier ballads and other early literature are seen undergoing a gradual crystallisation in the later ballads. New ideas are also seen finding their way. One such instance is the concept of vāsana (which will be discussed later on).

7

Closely connected with doctrinal developments is the growth of ideas. In as much as the doctrinal emphasis lay on the earliest tenets of

^{1.} There are at least 6 suttas (viz. the Hiri-; Dhammacariya-, Kiṃsīla-, Uṭṭhāna,- Subhā sita,- and Attadaṇḍa) which derive their names from their opening words. The suttas that are named after a word or simile in the body of the text are more numerous. There are 11 suttas (viz. the Ālavaka,- Muni,- Hiri-, Kiṃsīla,- Rāhula,—the Vathu-gāthā are in irregular anuṣṭubh-Subhāsita-, Kokāliya,- Vathu-gāthā of Nālaka-, Dhotaka pucchā Todeyya pucchā, and Jatukaṇṇi pucchā) in which the opening lines are written in a different metre from that (or those) of the rest of the poem. In five of these the opening stanza (or stanzas) is in anuṣṭubh. Less numerous are the poems in which the concluding stanzas are written in a metre different from that of the rest of the poem: e.g. the Dhaniya-, Sabhiya-, Vaṅgīsa-, Sundarikabhāradvāja and Pasūra Suttas.

Buddhism—which Mrs. Rhys Davids prefers to call "Sākya"—in the majority of these ballads, so also could be noticed the gradual formation of definite ideas and concepts which in course of time came to play an important role in later Buddhism. Along with this appear standard technical expressions which too in course of time became fixed. Some terms are seen in the transitional stage of being crystallised in these ballads. The later ballads mark the gradual drift from primitive "Sākya" to monastic Buddhism which replaced it. The trend of development, if successfully traced, will enable one to place these suttas in some sort of chronological arrangement.

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Social conditions depicted in the Sutta Nipāta reflect an age when Brahmanism held sway and caste exerted great influence. The ballads show that in spite of the effort of the Buddha to break down these barriers he was obliged to give new values to what was best in Brahmanism; (e.g., the Buddhist connotation of brāhmaṇa, etc.), in order to make his message universally acceptable. Society was mainly agricultural and there lived rich herdsmen like Dhaniya (a Vaiśya?) and brahmin farmers like Bhāradvāja. The samaṇas and paribbājakas are accepted institutions and many paribbājakas are represented as getting their individual problems solved by the Buddha.

The older ballads reflect a time when Buddhism had not developed into a full-fledged monastic (coenobitic) system. It is the muni, the bhikkhu, or the samaṇa, that these ballads are concerned with. There are only two references to thera in the whole of the Sutta Nipāta, both occurring in introductory prose at pp. 59 and 92 respectively. The latter reference is not to Buddhist theras, but to those who are "firmly established in their own religious beliefs." The conditions among the bhikkhus were most probably far different from those prevalent during the time of the composition of the Thera-and Therī-gāthās. There appears no organised monastic body; but on the contrary there were the munayo (ascetics in general) or the bhikkhus who were expected to lead the life of a muni.

The social conditions reflected in the Sutta Nipāta regarding peoples and castes, countries and towns, brahmins and sacrifice are no different from those reflected in the prose Nikāyas. It is probable that the majority of the Pali works generally depict conditions prevalent at the time of their composition, but the difference of a century or two hardly makes any fundamental difference in the structure of society and mode of life in those far-off days.

Incidental references to contemporary history would enable one to draw some conclusions regarding the time of composition. Often such references are not made directly. They occur as anachronisms. One such instance is to be noticed in *mandira*—a political division; which probably came into being after the formation of a large empire. Thus, any evidence gathered from this source too will be seen to supplement what has already come to light from other sources.

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External evidence is of utmost importance. Several Canonical works make reference to, and quote from certain suttas and sections in the Sutta Nipāta. This necessarily proves that the sections of these works which refer to and quote from the Sutta Nipāta are decidedly later than those respective suttas of the Sutta Nipāta. The references made to the Aṭṭhaka and the Pārāyana Vaggas will be discussed later. Equally numerous are the references made to these sections in the later BSk. and Chinese Buddhist literature. The Aṭṭhaka Vagga occurs in full in Chinese (i.e., No. 198 Thai Shu Tripiṭaka). Besides these references in literature there is important inscriptional evidence in Asoka's Bhābra edict. All these external data are connected with individual suttas and there is no specific mention of the Sutta Nipāta in any early work. It is mentioned for the first time in the Milinda Pañha.

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Another criterion is the *indirect evidence* from the position of the *suttas* as they occur in the *vaggas*. Some *suttas* are placed at the head of the *vagga* for their outstanding merit (e.g., the opening *suttas* of the *Uraga Vagga*) while other opening *suttas* bear definite signs of lateness (e.g., *Ratana*). Of equal importance are the *suttas* occurring at the end of the *vagga*. The *Muni Sutta*, in spite of its being an old piece is placed at the end of the *Uraga Vagga* after a relatively younger piece *Vijaya Sutta*. On the other hand, the late *Dvayatānupassanā Sutta* concludes the *Mahā Vagga*.

In the light of all these conflicting data it is not possible to formulate a working principle to be guided by. However, it will be seen that some of these *suttas* are younger in time and in general tone. When older *suttas* in similar positions are also taken into account these younger pieces point to a redaction of the *suttas* subsequent to an earlier collation rather than to their being interpolations.

A striking similarity is to be seen in the Vinaya. The popular tradition has been embodied in the opening chapters of the Mahā Vagga, while

nikāya it is comparatively late, and is much later than the other four Nikāyas (vide Winternitz, op. cit. Vol. II, pp. 77 ff.). The Sarvāstivādins speak of only the four earlier Nikāyas (which they call Āgamas), and the Theravādins themselves had reached no general agreement regarding the number of works in the Khuddaka Nikāya. Even at the present day in countries where Pali Buddhism prevails the number of books which should constitute this nikāya is not agreed upon.

14

The Jātakas which form the tenth book of the Khuddaka Nikāya in the Theravada Canon are also considered as a separate anga (lit. limb, i.e. division) in the descriptive classification known as the navangasatthusāsana (the Ninefold Dispensation of the Teacher) which occurs in many places in the Canon itself e.g. M. I, 130; A. II, 103, 178, III, 86 ff.; 177 ff., Pug. 43, Miln. 344 etc. Although this classification is necessarily old (vide E. J. Thomas: Life of Buddha p. 167, where he considers the division into angas as earlier than that into nikāyas) it does not speak of any definite works, for, a jātaka may be included in a sutta, an udāna in a veyyākarana etc. Like the Udāna and the Itivuttaka, the name Jātaka coincides with that of an actual work in existence. But there is nothing to say that by this anga was meant the present Jātaka. As Dr. E. J. Thomas (History of Buddhist Thought, p. 227) says "the probability is that the terms were used. . . to describe the character of the composition" rather than signify actual works. He points out that there are numerous instances of udānas and jātakas in various parts of the Canon which are not included in the works known by these respective names; (ibid) e.g., the Mahāsudassana Sutta in the Dīgha Nikāya, jātakas in Cariyā Piţaka, Sivi Jātaka called Sivi Sutta in Miln., etc. So is also the case with the *Itivuttaka*.

Taking up the division of the Pali Navanga, its first anga, Sutta, is said to include the Vinaya, certain suttas in gāthā, and other sayings of the Buddha classed as sutta. It is noteworthy that Commentaries considered these sections of the Sutta Nipāta which did not fall into the category of sutta, as gāthā, the fourth anga (vide DA. I, 23); but gāthā primarily consisted of verses in Dh. Th. 1 and Th. 2 (vide Thomas, op. cit.). The Commentary says that the Sutta Nipāta consists of gāthā (verse), geyya (mixed prose and verse) and veyyākarana (expositions) which, on account of their informative, instructive and expository nature are called suttas, and that the work is called the Sutta Nipāta because it contains such suttas grouped together (SnA. 1—Pj. II introduction). From these statements it is clear that at least some suttas, if not the

majority of them in the Sutta Nipāta, can be said to belong to the Sutta Anga (vide Thomas, op. cit.).

Of the known instances of nipātas in the Pali Canon, the Anguttara as a work has nothing corresponding to it in the Navanga division, the Jātaka may have been considered to correspond to the seventh anga, Jātaka, and it is probable that the Sutta Nipāta was only a nipāta of a similar anga. This only implies that the Sutta Nipāta consists of some suttas representative of the type Sutta and therefore is a nipāta of suttas.

15

This collection should consist entirely of pieces which could be designated as Sutta if the title Sutta Nipāta were to be justified. The Commentary (SnA.) states that the three types gāthā, geyya and veyyākarana can be again called sutta and therefore the gāthā in the Sutta Nipāta are suttas as well. It is not possible to draw a line of demarcation between gāthā and sutta. Of the 72 pieces found in the Sutta Nipāta as many as 54 i.e. those forming vaggas I-IV, are called sutta by name, irrespective of whether they would strictly be categorised as sutta or gāthā, if such a division were possible. (The other 18 pieces form the Pārāyana consisting of the prologue—vatthu-gāthā, the 16 pucchās and the epilogue respectively). This fact probably furnishes a clue to this problem. During the time of the arrangement of this collection the distinction between gāthā and sutta may not have been strictly observed, and things may have existed in a rather fluid state.

In the first 54 pieces a growing tendency towards standardisation can be seen. Every piece, whether ballad or discourse, is termed a *sutta*. The stanzas of the so-called *suttas* are often referred to as *gāthā*; e.g. Sn, 429 ed,

Imā gāthā bhanam māro aṭṭhā Buddhassa santike (Uttering these stanzas Māra stood near the Buddha); Sn. 251c,

citrāhi gāthāhi muni-ppakāsayi

(the sage declared in colourful verse) in the narrative section of the Āmagandha Sutta; Sn. pp. 13, 32, 46 and 48 in the narrative prose of the Kasibhāradvāja, Āļavaka, Mahāmangala and Sūciloma Suttas respectively,

Atha kho...Bhagavantam gāthāya ajjhabhāsi. (Then indeed, N. N. addressed the Bhagavā in a stanza); Sn. p, 78,

Sāruppāhi gāthāhi abhitthavi (extolled him with appropriate stanzas) in the prose of the Subbhāsita Sutta. It also occurs at Sn.~81=480 in the phrase, gāthābhigīlam (what is obtained by reciting stanzas) and Sn.~1131 a, pārāyanam anugāyissam (I shall sing the Pārāyana).

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Of the known instances of nipātas in the Pali Canon, the Anguttara as a work has nothing corresponding to it in the Navanga division, the Jātaka may have been considered to correspond to the seventh anga, Jātaka, and it is probable that the Sutta Nipāta was only a nipāta of a similar anga. This only implies that the Sutta Nipāta consists of some suttas representative of the type Sutta and therefore is a nipāta of suttas.

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This collection should consist entirely of pieces which could be designated as Sutta if the title Sutta Nipāta were to be justified. The Commentary (SnA.) states that the three types gāthā, geyya and veyyākarana can be again called sutta and therefore the gāthā in the Sutta Nipāta are suttas as well. It is not possible to draw a line of demarcation between gāthā and sutta. Of the 72 pieces found in the Sutta Nipāta as many as 54 i.e. those forming vaggas I-IV, are called sutta by name, irrespective of whether they would strictly be categorised as sutta or gāthā, if such a division were possible. (The other 18 pieces form the Pārāyana consisting of the prologue—vatthu-gāthā, the 16 pucchās and the epilogue respectively). This fact probably furnishes a clue to this problem. During the time of the arrangement of this collection the distinction between gāthā and sutta may not have been strictly observed, and things may have existed in a rather fluid state.

In the first 54 pieces a growing tendency towards standardisation can be seen. Every piece, whether ballad or discourse, is termed a *sutta*. The stanzas of the so-called *suttas* are often referred to as $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$; e.g. Sn. 429 ed,

Imā gāthā bhanam māro aṭṭhā Buddhassa santike (Uttering these stanzas Māra stood near the Buddha); Sn. 251c,

citrāhi gāthāhi muni-ppakāsayi
(the sage declared in colourful verse) in the narrative section of the Āmagandha Sutta; Sn. pp. 13, 32, 46 and 48 in the narrative prose of the Kasibhāradvāja, Āļavaka, Mahāmangala and Sūciloma Suttas respectively,

Atha kho....Bhagavantam gāthāya ajjhabhāsi. (Then indeed, N. N. addressed the Bhagavā in a stanza); Sn. p, 78,

Sāruppāhi gāthāhi abhitthavi (extolled him with appropriate stanzas) in the prose of the Subbhāsita Sutta. It also occurs at Sn. 81=480 in the phrase, gāthābhigīlam (what is obtained by reciting stanzas) and Sn. 1131 a, pārāyanam anugāyissam (I shall sing the Pārāyana).

Besides these there are three instances of introductory verses called *Vatthugāthā viz.* 1. A short introduction to the *Rāhula Sutta* (Sn. 335-336), 2. the introduction to the *Nālaka Sutta* (Sn. 679-698) and 3. the prologue to the *Pārāyana* (Sn. 976-1031).

Again in the Bhābru (or Bairat) Minor Rock Edict of Aśoka (vide Hultzsch: (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. 1, p. 172) the fourth dhammapaliyāya (section of the Scriptures) which is identified with the Muni Sutta of the Sutta Nipāta (vide Dharmānanda Kosambi: Indian Antiquary 1912 pp. 37 ff.) is called Muni-gāthā (Stanzas on a Sage). The sixth which is identified with the Sāriputta Sutta of the Sutta Nipāta (ibid.) is called Upatisapasine (the question of Upatissa). Here too is noticeable the tendency towards standardisation, for, what were known to Aśoka as gāthā and pasine are called suttas in the Sutta Nipāta. Thus, it can be seen that an attempt has been made to designate as suttas, as many pieces of the Sutta Nipāta as possible. Hence the compiler has found no difficulty in classifying this work as a nipāta in a larger group of suttas. It is very unlikely that he had the Sutta Pitaka in mind. and it is quite probable that the Sutta Nipāta was meant to be a nipāta among suttas in general, if not in the anga of Sutta, although finally it came to be considered as a nipāta of the Khuddaka Nikāya.

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The Form of the Sutta Nipāta

The suttas of the Atthaka Vagga and the Pucchas of the Pārāyana Vagga are entirely in verse, whereas suttas of the other three vaggas are of two different types, one in pure verse, the other partly in verse and partly in prose. The 20 suttas in vaggas 1-111 which are entirely in gāthā form and called "Verse Ballads" (vide, S. M. Katre: Early Buddhist Ballads and their Relation to Older Upanishadic Literature) are distributed in the following manner: 7 in Uraga Vagga, 9 in Culla Vagga and 4 in Mahā Vagga. The "Mixed Ballads" (in prose and verse) occur as 5, 5 and 8 in the three respective vaggas. The absence of Mixed Ballads in the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas and the ascending order in which they occur in the other three vaggas may furnish valuable data in discussing the relative chronology of these suttas.

The prose in these *suttas* is not an essential factor in the dialogue or discourse as the case may be. It is employed as an aid to the narrative or to describe the *nidāna* (the context). The only prose in seven¹ of these eighteen Mixed Ballads is the passage describing the circumstances

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A close examination of the prose passages shows that they did not, as a rule, form an essential part of the ballad to begin with. In four of the last category of *suttas* i.e. except the *Dvayatānupassanā*, it serves merely as a connecting thread running through the whole ballad linking up the various parts. Generally, when what is stated in the stanzas is not sufficient for the listener to grasp what has transpired between the end of one part and the beginning of the next part of the ballad, prose is introduced giving the necessary details; e.g. *Sn.* p. 14,

Atha Kho Kasibhāradvājo brāhmaņo mahatiyā kamsapātiyā pāyāsam vaddhetvā Bhagavato upanāmesi (Then the brahmin K. served out milkrice in a large bronze bowl and offered it to the Bhagavā). Also see Sn. p. 110. Sometimes with the change of speaker prose is introduced; e.g. Sn. p. 79, in the Subhāsita Sutta; and often for both the above reasons; e.g. Sn. p. 111 Sela and pp. 94-100 Sabhiya Suttas.

The language of the prose is quite similar to that of the prose Nikāyas in idiom, syntax and style. The stereotyped expression in the prose of the Sutta Nipāta does not permit one to infer that it preserves the exact words of the narrators or reciters of these ballads. Generally, balladreciters state in their own words, such facts as are necessary for the listeners to follow the narrative in the ballads. Here the prose states the same facts though clothed in the standard Canonical garb; and probably this standardisation has taken place long after the composition of the ballads themselves.

Narrative prose should be compared with verse employed for narration, found in abundance in the Sutta Nipāta. The Commentator himself attributes several stanzas to the saṅgītikārā (reciters at a Saṇigīti or 'Council', i.e., compilers); e.g. Sn. 30, 251-252, 355d, 401d, 429cd, 449 and the epilogue of the Pārāyana at (SnA. 42, 292, 351, 377, 387, 394 and 603 respectively). In addition to these he attributes to the saṅgītikārā, such repertory phrases as, iti Bhagavā (Sn. 355 etc.), iti brāhmaṇo (Sn. 459 etc.) and prose elements in the Sabhiya, Sundarika-bhāradvāja, Māgha, Sela and Dvayatānupassanā Suttas (at SnA. 351,

Parābhava, Ālavaka, Mahāmańgala, Sūciloma, Vangīsa, Dhammika and Kokāliya.

Vasala, Brāhmaṇadhammika, Sundarikabhāradvāja, Māgha and Vāseṭṭha.
 Kaṣibhāradvāja, Subhāsita, Sabhiya, Sela and Dvayatānupassanā.

405, 394, and 398, 400, 414, 456 and 504 respectively). The vatthu-gāthā of the Nālaka Sutta and Pārāyana Vagga also belonged to the saṅgītikārā according to the Commentary (SnA. 483 and 580 respectively).

On a broad basis, the language, metre and style of the passages which are attributed to the saṅgītikārā are no different from those of the other parts of the ballads to which they belong, for, their language, like that of the rest of the gāthās in the Sutta Nipāta preserves an earlier phase of Pali than the standard Canonical expression of the prose of the Sutta Nipāta. (Also vide Geiger, Pali Literatur und Sprache, p. 1.). It is quite probable that in most cases this "narrative element" in verse goes back to the time of the composition of the ballads themselves.

On the other hand, the narrative prose in its present form cannot, in any way, date back earlier than the period when the Canonical prose idiom was gradually being fixed and acquired an accepted standard form. It is not improbable that this prose dates back only to the time of the arrangement of the Sutta Nipāta as a separate work. Prior to that time no fixed prose narrative may have been attached to these ballads, and the reciters used their own words when necessary. Thus, the prose in the Sutta Nipāta can be considered as being much younger than the gāthās.

e.g. Sa. p. 111 Sela und pp. 94-100 Sellim Suttat

The poetical pieces in the Sutta Nipāta are of three main types:—1. Simple didactic verse, 2. Dialogue in verse and 3. (Didactic) discourse or dialogue following a prose introduction. Type 2 can be further subdivided into (a) pure dialogue in verse, (b) dialogue consisting of a discourse in answer to a question.

There are 21 suttas belonging to type I, viz. I, 1, 3, 8, 11, 12; II. 1, 3, 6, 8, 10; III. 8; IV. 1-6, 8, 12, 13 and 15. Some of these suttas like I. 1 (Uraga) and I. 3 (Khaggavisāṇa) etc. are simple ballads with a regular refrain running through them. Others like I. 8 (Metta), II. 1 (Ratana) and II. 3 (Hiri) etc. dilate on certain topics of religious or doctrinal importance; still others such as some of the suttas from the Atthaka Vagga (included in the above list) show the attitude of a true follower of the Buddha to certain then-current issues. The last two sub-types are more in the nature of discourses rather than simple ballads.

There are 30 pieces belonging to type 2; 20 of which viz. I. 2, 5, 9; IV. 9 and V. 2-17 (the sixteen pucchās) can be said to belong to type 2(a) i.e. dialogues in verse. Class 2 (b) consists of the 10 suttas, II. 2, 9, 11, 13; III. 11; IV. 7, 10, 11, 14 and 16 in which a discourse in verse is given in reply to a question asked by an interlocutor.

Type 3 consisting of the so-called "Mixed Ballads" includes 16 suttas; viz. I. 6, 7, 10; II. 4, 5, 7, 12, 14; III. 3-7, 9, 10 and 12. Some of the suttas like I. 7 (Vasala), II. 4 (Mahāmangala), III. 3 (Sundarikabhāradvāja), III. 5 (Māgha) etc. are discourses in the form of ballads; while others like I. 6 (Parābhava) I. 10 (Āļavaka) and II. 12 (Dhammika) are dialogues on matters of doctrinal importance.

The other 5 pieces which are not included in the above classification are I. 4 (Kasibhāradvāja S.), a prose and verse mixed narrative with dialogue, V. 18 (the epilogue to the Pārāyana) a prose and verse mixed narrative, and III. 1 (Pabbajjā S.) III. 2 (Padhāna S.) and V. 1 (the Vatthugāthā of the Pārāyana, simple narratives in verse.)

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The ballads of the Sutta Nipāta are popular in character, though they describe incidents connected with the Buddha and his teaching. There is a great deal of popular lore incorporated in the gāthās e.g. Sn. 137-141, 667-678, etc. There are also many popular teachings in some of the suttas, e.g., 1, 6, 7, 8 and the late Ratana Sutta (II. 1); but all of them are at the same time characteristically Buddhist. The ballads also contain many passages and ideas common to the earlier Upaniṣads and the Epics; (vide Katre, op. cit.).

Besides these similarities that the Sutta Nipāta bears to the earlier Upaniṣads and epic literature, it has much in common with the earlier Sanskritic literature even in form. The narrative-ballads, viz. Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka (vatthu-gāthā only) Suttas have their counterpart in the ākhyāna (ballad) literature in Sanskrit. Their common characteristic is the alternation of dialogue stanzas with narrative stanzas. Discussing these suttas Winternitz (op. cit., Vol. II, p. 96) remarks that they are "precious remnants of that ancient sacred ballad-poetry from which the later epic version of the life of Buddha grew, in the same way as the heroic epic grew out of the secular ballads or ākhyānas."

In the same way, the riddle poetry found in the Sutta Nipāta, such as the Āļavaka and Hemavata Suttas in which a yakkha asks a question has parallels in the Mahābhārata (vide Winternitz, ibid. Vo. I, p. 352 and P.V. Bapat, The nāgarī edition of the Sutta Nipāta, p. XVII). The poetical riddles or brahmodya of the Rgveda, e.g. I. 164, VIII. 29 are not very different from the riddle-poetry of the Sutta Nipāta (cp. Kasibhāradvāja S.). The mixed prose and verse narrative dialogues of the Brāhmanas are an exact parallel to the "Mixed-Ballads" of the Sutta Nipāta. From these it is evident that the early Buddhists not only used the same traditional floating literary material, but also made use of the same literary modes common to the earlier Sanskritic literature.

The dramatic element which is not rare in the Sutta Nipāta has its parallels in the earlier literature. It is clearly noticeable at I. 2. (Dhaniya S.), I. 9 (Hemavata S.), III. 2 (Padhāna S.) and IV. 9 (Māgandiya S.). It may be said that the majority of the dialogue ballads can be dramatised; but in the absence of any positive evidence it cannot be established with certainty that any of them were dramatised in early times. There is only a certain degree of probability.⁴

There is no doubt that these ballads were sung. The internal evidence of the Sutta Nipāta itself testifies to it; e.g. Sn. 81=480 gathābhigītam (what is obtained by singing stanzas), Sn. 682a, Selenti gāvanti ca vādiyanti (they cry exultantly, sing and play instrumental music). As suggested by Katre (op. cit.) it is probable that these stanzas were sung to the accompaniment of music (cp. Sn. 682a); but the only evidence he puts forward is the occurrence of the word vinā (lute) at Sn. 449b, vinā kacchā abhassatha (the lute dropped from under his arm lit. arm-pit). Judging from the fact that a vinā (which is usually associated with his three daughters) was incongruous with the early Mara-legend and that the parallel line in Mahāvastu reads, vināsam gacchi ucchriti (His pride was all shattered—Mavastu. II. 240) much significance cannot be attached to this line. However, the very form of the gāthās suggests that they were sung, and it is probable that the regular dialogue ballads were sung on suitable occasions (samajjas?) by two or more reciters, each singing the respective words spoken by the characters in the ballad.

In the *Dhaniya Sutta* for instance, two reciters would sing the alternate stanzas representing the dialogue between the herdsman Dhaniya and the Buddha, a third would introduce *Sn.* 30, the words of the narrator, while Māra appears singing *Sn.* 33. Here is a regular dramatic piece. Such ballads can be compared with the ākhyāna-hymns of the Rgveda (e.g. the hymn about Saramā and the Panīs, Rv. X. 108, or the dialogue between Yama and Yāmī, Rv. X. 10), which are regarded by some as the earliest forms of dramatic literature in India and by others as ballads (vide Ghate's Lectures on Rgveda, p. 121 n. 1). In fact, the ākhyāna-hymns of the Rgveda, on account of their dual characteristic of being ballads and dramatic pieces at the same time, can be said to bear a very close resemblance to the dialogue ballads of the *Sutta Nipāta*.

(Continued)

^{4.} There are numerous references in the Nikāyas to dramatic performances, e.g., naṭa, nacca, visūkadassana, pekkhā, samajja and sobhanika: vide O.II. de A Wijesekera, "Buddhist Evidence for the Early Existence of Drama." I.H.Q. XVII, where he has analysed the data giving many references. It is probable that Buddhist ballads were dramatically recited at Samajjas and similar occasions.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPĀTA

N. A. Jayawickrama

Additional Abbreviations

AA—Manorathapūranī (Anguttara Nikāya Commentary: PTS, 5 vols., 1924-57; reprinted 1964-73)

Ap-Apadāna (PTS, 2 vols., 1925-7)

DhA—Dhammapada Commentary (PTS, 5 vols., 1906-15; reprinted 1970)

Divy.-Divyāvadāna (ed. E. B. Cowell and R. A. Neil, Cambridge, 1886)

D.P.P.N.—G. P. Malalasekera, Dictionary of Pali Proper Names (India Office Library, London, 1937; PTS, 1960)

I.A.—Indian Antiquary (Bombay, 1872-1933; 1964-)

It.—Itivuttaka (PTS, 1890; reprinted 1975)

J.A.-Journal Asiatique (Paris, 1822-)

J.D.L.-Journal of the Department of Letters (Calcutta)

J.P.T.S.-Journal of the Pali Text Society (London, 1882-1927)

J.R.A.S.—Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society (London, 1843—)

Katre—S. M. Katre, "Early Buddhist Ballads and their relation to the Older Upanishadic Literature" (Ph.D. thesis, London University, 1932)

Kh.-Khuddakapāṭha (PTS, 1915; reprinted 1959)

Kvu-Kathāvatthu (PTS, 2 vols., 1894-7)

Lal.—Lalitavistara (ed. S. Lefmann, Halle, 1902/8)

Mhv/Mvastu—Mahāvastu (ed. E. Senart, 3 vols., Paris, 1882-97; tr. J.J. Jones, SBB, 3 vols., 1949-56)

Nd.—Niddesa, Cūla (PTS, 1918); Mahā (PTS, 2 vols., 1916-7)

Reden—K. E. Neumann, Die Reden Gotamo Buddhos. Aus der Sammlung der Bruchstücke. (Leipzig, 1911; Munich, 1924; Zurich and Vienna, 1957)

S.H.B.—Simon Hewavitarne Bequest (Colombo)

U.C.R.—University of Ceylon Review (1943-67)

Ud.—*Udāna* (PTS, 1885, reprinted 1948)

UdA—Udāna Commentary (PTS, 1926)

Vin.-Vinaya Piṭaka (PTS, 5 vols., 1879-83; reprinted 1964)

Vsm.—Visuddhimagga (PTS, 2 vols., 1920-1)

Corrections to Vol. 1, No. 2: P. 75—DA refers to the Sumangalavilāsinī (Dīgha Nikāya Commentary: PTS, 3 vols., 1886, 1931-2; reprinted 1968-71). P. 81, line 16—Thai Shu refers to the Taishō (Tokyo) edition of the Chinese Tripiṭaka.

THE VAGGAS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

The Atthaka and the Pārāyana Vaggas appear to have been independent collections long before the existence of a separate work called the Sutta Nipāta. The Culla Niddesa which comments on the Pārāyana Vagga and Khaggavisāna Sutta and the Mahā Niddesa which comments on the Atthaka Vagga form the eleventh book of the Khuddaka Nikāya. They make no specific reference to the Sutta Nipāta. In spite of the fact that these two works were commentaries they came to be reckoned as canonical texts, and in turn were commented upon in the fashion of all canonical works. The fact that the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas and Khaggavisāna Sutta had, at one stage, existed independent of a specific collection, does not necessarily prove that all other suttas in Sn. are late. The Niddesas themselves quote from suttas which came to be later included in Sn., besides quoting from other works in the Canon, and parts of Sn. already commented upon in the Niddesas.

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Asoka's Bhābru Edict

Some of the *suttas* included in *Sn.* are mentioned by Asoka in his Bhābru Edict (*vide* U.C.R. VI. 2 p. 81), but often under different names. The Edict inculcates the study of the following passages:—

- 1. Vinaya-samukase,
- 2. Aliya-vasāni,
- 3. Anāgatā-bhayāni,
- 4. Muni-gāthā,
- 5. Moneyya-Sūte,
- 6. Upatisa-pasine and
- 7. Lāghulovāde musāvādam adhigicya.

1. Saddhammapajjotikā, the commentary on the Niddesas was composed during the reign of Aggabodhi I who ascended the throne (of Ceylon) in 554 A.C. (vide Sdpj.

^{2.} Vide Nd 1. ed. L. de la Vallée Poussin and E. J. Thomas pp. 513-515 and Nd 2 ed. W. Stede pp. 289-290. Sabhiya Sutta is quoted from no less than 14 times, i.e. Sn. 514, is quoted at Nd 1.71, Nd 2. 220; Sn. 516 at Nd 1. 244; Sn. 519 at Nd 1. 87, Nd 2. 214; Sn. 522 (cp. A. III. 345) at Nd. 1. 202, Nd 2. 180; Sn. 527 at Nd 1. 58, 221, 336; Sn. 529 at Nd 1. 93, 205, Nd 2. 256 and Sn. 531 at Nd 2. 255. Sāciloma S. is Quoted from 4 times i.e. Sn. 271 at Nd 1. 16, 364, 471 and Nd 2. 201; Padhāna S. also 4 times, viz. Sn. 436-439 at Nd 1. 96, 174, 333 and Nd 2. 253; Magandiya S. twice, viz. Sn. 844 at Nd 1. 179, 200, and Dhotakamāṇavapucchā (Sn. 1064), Mogharājamāṇavapucchā; (Sn. 1119), Salla (Sn. 576-581 ab cp. D. II. 120), Dvayatānupassanā (Sn. 740-741) and Nālaka (Sn. 715) Suttas once each at Nd 1. 32, 438, 121, 455 and Nd 2. 118 respectively.

Of these seven *dhammapaliyāyas* (sections of the Scriptures) only Nos. 1, 4, 5 and 6 have been observed by scholars to be identical with passages in Sn. All the seven passages are identified to some measure of satisfaction.³

Vinaya-samukase (1) "the Exalted Treatise on Moral Discipline" is identified with the Sāmukkamsikā Dhammadesanā (Ud. V. 3) by A. J. Edmunds in J.R.A.S. 1913 p. 387. Dr. B. M. Barua (J.R.A.S. 1915 p. 809) identifies it with the Singālovāda Suttanta (D. III. 180-194) arguing that Ariyassa vinaya which is the topic of discussion there is implied by the term Vinaya-samukase and that it was intended for the clergy and the laity alike. S.N. Mitra (I.A. 1919 pp. 8-11) suggests the Sappurisa Sutta (M. III, 37-45) on account of the occurrence of the words vinayādhāra and attānam samukkamseti. Bhandarkar (Asoka pp. 87-88) attempts to prove its identity with the Tuvataka Sutta of Sn. (Sn. 915-934) from the fact that it is included by Buddhaghosa in a list of four suttas, three of which can be identified with three of Asoka's dhammapaliyāyas. He adduces further interval evidence and maintains that the Buddha expounds religious practices here, for, pāṭimokkha, paṭipadā and samādhi are some of the topics under discussion.

Muni-gāthā (4) is undoubtedly the Muni Sutta of Sn. (Sn. (Sn. 207-221).⁴ Rhys Davids (J.P.T.S. 1896 p. 95) argues that if Śaila-gāthā (at Divy. 35) meant Sela Sutta, then Muni-gāthā should be the Muni Sutta. He further states 'that Asoka should lay so much stress on this short poem is only in harmony with the tenor of the whole context in the Edict'.

The next dhammapaliyāya Moneyya-sūte (5), is identified with the discourse of the Nālaka Sutta (Sn. 699-723). It was wrongly identified as either A.I. 273 or It. 56 (Rhys Davids loc. cit.); but all available evidence shows that Moneyya-sūte was none other than the Nālaka-discourse. The alternative name for the Nālaka Sutta in Pāli itself is Moneyya Sutta (Chalmers xi), which perhaps owes its origin to the opening word moneyyam. Further, the Sūtra in Mvastu. that corresponds to this discourse is also called Mauneya (Mvastu. III. 387 ff.). The short and unimpressive prose passages at A.I. 273 and It. 56 could not in any way have been the Moneyya-sūte of Asoka, though they deal with Moneyyāni in brief.

Oldenberg and Rhys Davids attempt to identify Upatisa-pasine (6) with a Vinaya passage (Vinaya Texts 3. 149 i.e. Vin. I. 39-41) which gives the story of Sāriputta's conversion as a result of his question to Assaji.

4. Vide Dharmananda Kosambi, I. A. 1912 pp. 37 ff.; Mookerji, Asoka pp. 16 ff. and Bhandarkar, Asoka 85 ff.

Rhys Davids elaborates further on this in J.R.A.S. 1893 p. 693 and J.P.T.S. 1896 pp. 97-98. But Dharmānanda Kosambi (I.A. 1912 p. 40) identifies it with Sāriputta Sutta (Sn. 955-975). It is generally accepted that the passages mentioned by Asoka are short pieces. The people were instructed to study these dharmaparyāyas and perhaps learn them by heart as was the practice then. A passage in verse lends itself easier for memorising than one in prose, and has more poetic appeal. This alone is sufficient reason why Upatisa-pasine cannot be the prose sutta at Vin. I. 39-41.

The seventh "section of the scriptures" called the "Exhortation to Rahula, beginning on the subject of Falsehood" has so far been identified as the Ambalatthikā Rāhulovāda Sutta (M.I. 414-420),5 but the probability is that it perhaps referred to a Rāhula Sutta in verse. The only Rāhula Sutta in verse in the Pali Canon, is found at Sn. 335-342. But the sutta as it exists now, cannot be easily identified with Lāghulovāde musāvādam adhigicya, as it neither begins with $(adhi + \sqrt{kr})$, nor deals with the topic of musāvāda (falsehood) anywhere in the body of the sutta. It has been pointed out by Katre that probably the Vatthugāthā (Sn. 335-336) formed a part of a different Rāhula Sutta and that the concluding sentence in prose links them with the rest of the sutta. He further states that the clue to the verses is found only in the prose formula at the end of the sutta. This other Rāhula Sutta, presumably a part of which is now preserved as Vatthu-gāthā in Sn. was probably the sutta mentioned by Asoka. But all this is purely conjectural. No definite connection can be established between Sn. 335-336 and M.I. 414-420, the other Rāhula Sutta; and there is no conclusive proof that No. 7 in the Edict had any connections with Sn. 335-336 or Sn. 335-342. The only reasons for suspecting that they were connected are:-

- 1. The Rāhula Sutta in Sn. is a comparatively short piece in verse.
- 2. The two, Lāghulovāda and Rāhula Sutta refer to the same person (Rāhula).
- 3. This dhammapaliyāya follows three others in the Edict which are identified with certainty to belong to the same type of literature (i.e. pieces now preserved in Sn.).

Eliminating the Rāhula Sutta as doubtful there yet remain four suttas of Sn. in Asoka's list. The consensus of opinion among scholars is that Munigāthā, Moneyya-sūte and Upatisa-pasine referred to suttas which were included in Sn. Perhaps Bhandarkar is correct when he identifies Vinayasamukase as the Tuvaṭaka Sutta.⁶ There is no doubt that these suttas existed at least as early as the 3rd century B.C. For lack of further evidence it is incorrect to presuppose the existence of Sn. prior to the time

^{3.} Vide Hultzsch, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. I, pp. 172-174 ff.; Dharmanada Kosambi, I. A., 1912 pp. 37 ff.; Rhys Davids, J.P.T.S. 1896 pp. 93 ff.; J.R.A.S. 1898 pp. 683 ff.; Rādhakumud Mookerji, Asoka, pp. 117 ff.; D. R. Bhandarkar, Asoka, pp. 85 ff.; J.D.L. (Calcutta) xx, pp. 1-7; Sylvain Lévi, J.A. 7, 475 ff.; and Oldenberg, Vinaya Pitakam I, xl ff.

^{5.} Rhys Davids J.P.T.S. 1896 p. 95.

^{6.} op. cit.

of Asoka as there is no specific mention of it either in inscriptions or in any Canonical work.

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The Atthaka Vagga

The Episode of Sona Kutikanna.

On the other hand, the early existence of the Atthaka and the Pārāvana Vaggas as separate collections, can be deduced from the references made to them in other works. The earliest mention of the Atthaka Vagga is at Vin. I. 196, in the episode of Sona Kutikanna, which repeats itself in many other works with various additions and alterations. The Vinava passage runs..āyasmā Sono sabbān'eva Atthakavaggikāni sarena abhāsi (the venerable Sona recited all the sections—or suttas—of the Atthaka Vagga with proper intonation). At Ud. 59 the precise number of suttas in the Atthaka Vagga is also mentioned . . āyasmā Sono . . solasa Atthakavaggikāni sabbān'eva sarena abhāni (the venerable Sona recited all the 16-suttasof the Atthaka Vagga with proper intonation). Dh A. IV. 102, UdA. 312, AA.I. 241 and Th 1 A. I. 459 relate this incident in very much the same words, but with additional commentarial gloss.

The Avadana of Kotikarna (Divy. 20), which is an extract from the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins8 mentions the Atthaka Vagga: Athāyuşmāñchrono bhagavatā kṛtāvakāśah asmātparāntikayā guptikayā Udānāt, Pārāyanāt, Satyadrstah, Sailagāthā, Munigāthā, Arthavargīyāni (v.i. arthavadgīyāni) ca sūtrāni vistarena svarena svādhyāyam karoti. (Then the venerable Srona, with the approval of the Bhagava, rehearsed in detail, with intonation in the accent of an Aparantika, passages from the Udana and Pārāyana, the Satyadrsta (?), the Śaila-gāthā (Sela S), Munigāthā (Muni S.) and the sūtras of the Arthavarga).

In the Avadana of Pūrna at Divy. 34-35, the merchants who embarked with Pūrna are said to have recited the Udāna, Pārāyana, Satyadarśa, Sthaviragāthā, Śailagāthā, Munigāthā and the Arthavargīya Sūtra.

In the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins which is found in Chinese⁹ (Tok. XVI. 4. 56a), Śrona is said to have recited the Pārāyana and the Satyadarśa. The Buddha complements his Avantī pronunciation.

The Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas, preserved in Chinese (Tok. XVI, 2, 30a). contains a version similar to the Pali account in the Vinaya; but the number of suttas is specified as in the Udāna.

The account in the Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas resembles the version in Pāli and the account in the Vinaya of the Mahīśāsakas. Here (Tok. XV. 5. 53b; chap. 39) Kotikarna is said to have recited the 16 Arthapada without addition or omission.

In the Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas (Tok. XV. 9.61a; chap. 23) Śrona recites the Astavarga (Ch. Chu Pa-ch'un-ching), and the Buddha questions him on the phrases (pada) and the meaning (artha).

In all these accounts, except in the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins, the Arthavargīyāni or the Atthakavaggikāni are mentioned. The additional list of titles in Sanskrit texts is a mere expansion though Sylvain Lévi does not consider it an interpolation:

"On pourrait etre tente de croire que la liste des titres donnée dans le texte sanscrit est une interpolation, si la version tibetaine du Dulva ne venait pas contrôler-et sur certains points rectifier-le texte sanscrit." (ibid. p. 412). The Tibetan version parallel to the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins is at Dulva I. 378-405 (cf. Divy. I, Ch. Tok. XVII. 4. 104e-190b).

23

Other References in Buddhist Sanskrit Works

Besides the episode of Sona (Śrona), there are numerous references to, and quotations from the Atthaka Vagga. Vasubandhu in his Abhidharmakośa quotes the following verse:-

Tasya cet kāmayānasya chandajātasya dehinah te kāmā na samīdhyanti śalyaviddha iva rūpyate and attributes it to the Atthaka Vagga (cp. Sn. 767).

Yasomitra in his Abhidharmakośa-vyākhyā comments: Tathā hyartha-. vargiyeşüktam iti: Arthavargiyani sütrani yani Kşudrake pathyante teşüktam; tasya cet kāmayānasya iti vistarah. Tasya dehinah kāmayānasya

arrow'').

chandajātasya yadi kāmā viṣayā na samṛdhyanti na sampadyante ṣalyaviddha ivāsau rūpyate bādhyate ityarthah. (This is what is meant by the statement that it has been so said in the Arthavargiyas: It is stated in the sūtras of the Arthavargīya found in the Kṣudraka (Nikāya or Āgama?) that the meaning of "if of him who desires etc." is, "If the desires and sensepleasures of a being who yearns and craves for such pleasures are not

satisfied nor fulfilled he sulks and is perturbed like one shot with an

^{7.} The episode of Sona (Śrona) in Pāli and BSk. is fully analysed and critically studied by Sylvain Lévi in J.A. 1915 pp. 401 ff.

8. Vide Huber, B.E.F.E.O. 1907, Sylvain Lévi, T'oung Pao 1907 and M. Choyannes,

Cinq cents Contes et-Apologues II, 237 ff.

I am indebted to Prof. Sylvain Lévi's analysis of the Srona Episode in J.A. 1915. for these references.

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Bodhisattvabhūmi (p. 48) commenting on the word kānti says thus, Uktam ca bhagavatā Arthavargīyeşu,

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Yā kaścana samyrtayo hi loke, saryā hi tā munir nopaiti

Anupago hyasau kena upādatīta, drstasrute kāntim asamprakurvan (cf. Sn. 897). "And so it has been said by the Bhagavā in the Arthavargī yas, Whatever conventions of the world there are, none of them affects the muni (sage), for he does not move with them, wherefore shall he who forms no sense-attachment to what is seen and heard be guided (by them)?"

The reading kāntim in Bodhisattvabhūmi sheds a new light on the interpretation of the line Sn. 897 d. All MSS., except two Burmese MSS. (Nos. 4 and 5 mentioned at Sn. p.v., P.T.S. ed.) which read khanti, agree on the reading khantim. Nd 2. 165 considers khanti as a synonym for dițțhi, ruci, laddhi, ajjhāsaya and adhippāya, perhaps guided by the occurrence of dittha and suta at other passages in Sn. 10 Sn. A. 558 comments on it as: khantimakubbamāno, ti. pemam akaronto. Chalmers translates Sn. 897d as, "when phenomena of sense appeal to them no more," Fausböll, "he who is not pleased with what has been seen and heard," Neumann, Beim Sehn und Hören angehalten nimmer, and E. M. Hare, "why give accord to things of sight and ear?" All these translators apparently translate the idea correctly, but none of them seems to have questioned the text. According to the reading khantim the corresponding Sk. would be kṣāntim (patience). 11 The word khanti in a context like this may be translated as, "tolerance for" or even "(developing) a weakness for," but such a translation appears unnatural and laboured. If the text had been kantim (from \(\struct kam \)) and not khantim, the idea conveyed would be more in keeping with the context. The reading khantim in BSk. cannot be brushed aside as a wrong Sanskritisation for Pāli khantim. On the other hand, it may perhaps go back to a reading much earlier than Pāli.

There are also a number of passages and lines common to the Atthaka Vagga and other Pāli works. They are fully examined by Franke. 12

24

The Chinese Arthapadam

The complete Atthaka Vagga together with additional stories as a background is found in the Chinese Tripitaka although "it can be said with certainty that there is not and has never existed a Chinese version of the Sutta Nipāta. '13 This section called the I-tsu or Yi-tsou king (Arthapadam) is a translation dating back to the beginning of the 3rd century A.C., according to Anesaki. It occurs as No. 198 in the Taishō Tripitaka. The 16 pieces occur in the following order:-

Kāma Sutta contain	ns 8	lines	with	3	pādas	each	(No.	1 in	Pāli	Atthai	ka Vagga).	
Guhatthaka S. "	16	,,	,,	2	- ,,	,,	(No.	2	,,		1	
Dutthatthaka S.,,	4 & 1	2 ,,	5.5	2	,,	,,	(No.	3	"	,,	"	
Suddhatthaka S.,,	16	,,	,,	2	,,		(No.	4		**	,, /	
Paramatthaka S.,,	16			2		,,	(No.	5	,,	"	"	
Jarā S	20	"	,,	$\bar{2}$,,	,,	(No.	6	,,	"	<i>"</i>	
Tissametteyya S.,	20	,,	"	~	"	,,	(No.	7	"	,,	-,,)	
Pasūra S.	23	,,	,,	2	,,	"	S	0	,,	,,	.,,	
		"	,,	2	",	,,	(No.	8	,,	,,	,,)	
Māgandiya S. "	27	,,	,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	.9	,,	**	,,)	
Kalahavivāda S. "	32	,,	,,	2	,,	,,		11	,,	,,	,,)	
Cūlaviyñha S. ,,	34	,,	,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	12	,,	,,	,,)	
Mahāviyūha S. "	40	,,	,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	13	,,	,,	,,)	
Tuvataka S. "	40	,,	,,	2	,,	,,	(No.	14	,,	,,	,,)	
Sāriputta S. 16	& 24	,,	,,	2	,,	,,	ίΝο.	16	"		(
Purābheda S. ,,	28	"	22	2			(No.			,,	"	
Attadanda S	40			~	,,	,,	22.2	15	,,	,,	,,	
mananga b., ,,	70	,,	"	4	"	,,	(140.	10	,,	**	")	

In addition to the prose incorporated with these verses there occur some additional stanzas. The lines beginning with na socanāya at A. II. 62 are found at No. 1 and Sn. 152-179 in No. 13 of the Chinese version, i.e. Tuvataka Sutta.

All this evidence helps to show that the Atthaka Vagga as a collection is old, and Sylvain Lövi¹⁴ concludes, Nous sommes en droit de classer L'Arthavarga parmi les monuments les plus auciens de la litérature bouddhique.

25

Astaka Varga or Arthaka Varga?

The title Atthaka Vagga calls for attention next. The name Atthaka suggests that the vagga consists of octaves or suttas with eight stanzas each, but only four of its suttas (viz. Nos. 2-5) are proper octaves. It cannot be determined whether these suttas were atthakas (astakas—octaves) or atthakas (arthakas-meaningful utterances) to begin with. Pāli tradition has been very strong in insisting on the name Atthaka. It was customary for Pali compilers to resort to artificial means such as numerals, in their classifications. They may have deemed it proper to call a section Atthaka Vagga even though only a small proportion of its suttas consisted or real octaves. Similar instances may be seen in works like udāna where an important sutta in a vagga gives the name to the whole of it. It was not considered necessary that all the suttas in the vagga should consist of 8 stanzas each, unlike the majority of the nipātas (the earlier ones) of

^{10.} This idea occurs no less than 18 times in Sn. viz. Sn. 797 b=887 a, 793 ab=914 ab. 798 cd, 887 ab (887 b=790 b), 910 ab, 1079 ab=1080 bc, 1082 cd=1083 cd. 788 b= 789 a, 802 ab, 897 d and 778 d=250 d. All these instances (except 250 d) are, found in the sections commented in Nd 1 and 2.

^{11.} Vide E. J. Thomas, History of Buddhist Thought, p. 171 and s.v. P.T.S. 12. Vide R. Otto Franke, Die Sutta Nipāta Gāthās mit ihren Parallelen, Z.D.M.G. 1909-1912 and E. M. Hare, Woven Cadences, (S.B.B. Vol. XV), pp. 203-206.

^{13.} Anesaki, J.P.T.S. 1906-1907, p. 50. 14. J. A. 1915, p. 417.

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Th 1 and Th 2. It would be incorrect to say that only these four atthakas formed the Atthaka Vagga and that the other suttas were subsequently added or grafted from other places. This would imply a tacit acceptance of the incomplete artificial classification of Pāli compilers as final. In fact, the vagga follows a systematic arrangement in which the sutta with the least number of verses is placed first and proceeds gradually in ascending numerical order till the suttas with the highest number of verses are placed last. The order of arrangement of the suttas need not necessarily be as old as the vagga itself, for the Chinese version follows a slightly different order. However, nothing conclusive can be inferred from this.

Almost all the references to the Atthaka Vagga which mention the number of suttas in it speak of the Solasa atthakavaggikāni (Ud. 59, Ud A. 312, DhA. IV. 102 and AA. I. 241). The Chinese version was seen to contain the 16 suttas in full. Despite this general agreement Th IA. speaks of "addhuddhasolasa atthakavaggikāni": (Th IA. I. 459 S.H.B., commentary on Sonatthera's verses at Th 1, 365-369). This statement would imply that the Atthaka Vagga consisted of 56 (3½×16) suttas—an impossibility. Commentarial tradition cannot always be relied upon; and in all probability this statement may have been an exaggeration like the passage at AA. IV. 35 which speaks of 250 stanzas of the Pārāyana, when in actual practice the whole vagga, including the Vatthu-gāthās and Epilogue contains only 174 stanzas. The statement at Th. 1 A.I. 459 can also be interpreted as "56 stanzas of the Atthaka Vagga." It is not possible to find out to what suttas these 56 stanzas belonged. Obviously the 32 stanzas which form the four regular octaves should be included in this number. This leaves 24 verses which should be expected to belong to three other regular octaves; but no such suttas are to be found in the vagga. Furthermore, there is no possible combination of two or more suttas which brings about a total of 24 stanzas. There is no justifiable reason why a commentary of so late a date as 5th century A.C. should ignore some of the suttas and speak of only 56 stanzas when Nd 2. Vin. I. 196 and Ud. 59, leaving aside contemporary commentarial literature, confirm that it did consist of 16 suttas. The reading, addhuddhasolasa atthakavaggikāni is incompatible with evidence furnished by all other sources and therefore can be summarily dismissed as a Commentarial error.

Pāli works uniformly refer to this section as Atthaka Vagga though BSk. and Chinese Buddhist works give it different names. It is called Arthavargīyāni Sūtrāni (v.1. arthavadgīyāni) at Divy. 20 and 35. Vasubandhu and Yaśomitra (supra) call it Arthavargīya. Bodhisattvabhūmi too refers to it as Arthavargīya. The Chinese version gives the name as I-tsuo or Yi-tsouking (Arthapadam). In the episode of Śrona found in the Vinaya of the

Mahīśāsakas¹⁵ (Ch. Tok. XVI. 2. 30a) the reference is to the sixteen Arthakavargīya (Ch. Yi-pin=Artha-varga). The Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas (Tok. XV. 5. 53b) has it as the sixteen Arthapada (Ch. Yi-kiu=Artha-pada). In the Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins it is called the Arthavargīyāni Sūtrāni (Dulva: don kyi choms kyi mdo). The Sarvāstivād in Vinaya calls it the Artha-vargīya Sūtra (Tok. XVII. 4. 9b, Col. 5; Ch. Yi-tsing=Artha-vargīya). At Tok. XVI. 4. 56a it is called A-tch'a-p'o-k'i-ye-sieou-to-lou, sūtra des vertues rassemblées and is identified by Lévi (ibid.) as Arthavargīya Sūtra.

It is significant that the majority of these works refer to it as Artha (ka)varga or Artha-pada. The Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas alone speaks of an Asta-varga, but even here the idea of artha and pada is not absent. It is said that the Buddha questioned Srona on the phrases (pada) and the meaning (artha) after his recital (Tok. XV. 9. 61a, chap. 23). The Vinava of the Mahāsanghikas thus preserves the Pāli tradition at the same time reflecting another common to the rest of the BSk. works. It is quite probable that this section was originally not meant to be described as the "Eights," and BSk, may have preserved an earlier tradition which called these Atthakas Arthakas. The four octaves were probably Arthakas (Atthaka-meaningful statements) at the beginning. Each of these suttas contains in its opening line the words used for their respective titles. Guhatthaka opens with, Satto guhayam bahunābhicchanno (Sn. 772a), Dutthatthaka with, Vadanti ve dutthamanā, pi eke (Sn. 780a), Suddatthaka with, Passāmi suddham paramam arogam (Sn. 788a) and Paramatthaka with, Paramam ti ditthīsu paribbasāno (Sn 796a). These words are used as illustrations in the didactic-ballad discourses to elucidate the meaning, and hence the suttas are Atthakas (Arthakas). It is a mere coincidence that the number of stanzas constituting each of these suttas happens to be eight. The word attha together with the secondary suffix—ka (attha+ ka) may have changed into atthaka (probably) with the influence of Western Prākrit which has a tendency to cerebralise dentals following an r; i.e. $rt \rightarrow -tt$ -and- $rth \rightarrow -tth$. The first change is frequent in Pāli itself; e.g. Sk. ārta > atta. Artha itself is frequently changed to attha, which spelling was later restricted to a specific meaning as "law-suit" (atta). In cpds. artha > attha in Pāli e.g. atthakathā, atthuppatti, etc (s.v., P.T.S.). In the case of the Atthaka Vagga this change perhaps was more accentuated by the mere coincidence that four of its suttas consisted of 8 stanzas each. The weakness of Pāli compilers to be guided by numerical classifications may have finally led to stamp down the name "eights" or "octaves" on this vagga.

The emphasis on attha (weal) in the Pali Canon is evident from the

^{15.} The following references to Chinese works are from Sylvain Lévi, ibid.

numerous instances in which the word occurs. 16 The formula, atthāya hitāya sukhāya (for the benefit, well-being and comfort of) which occurs all over the Canon (e.g. D. III. 211 ff. It. 79, Kh. VIII. 1 etc.), leaving aside all other references to attha, testifies to the importance of this concept. It is probable that the idea underlying the Atthakas of the Atthaka Vagga was related to attha (weal) though fundamentally it was the elucidation of meaning (attha paridīpanā) that was aimed at. This may be seen more clearly at Saddharmapunḍarīka 383 1.3.

Evam idam mahārthasya dharmaparyāyasya dhāranā, vācanā, deśanā Bodhisattvānām anuttarāyāh samyak sambodher āhārakā samvartanti, (In like manner, the learning by heart, the reciting and the teaching of this section of the scriptures of great meaning—or benefit—tends to bring about the perfect and supreme Enlightenment of Bodhisattvas.

All this evidence seems to indicate that the term Atthaka Vagga (also mahāsanghika Asta-varga) was a misnomer arising from an early confusion caused by the occurrence of eight stanzas each in Nos. 2-5 of the Vagga. The term Atthaka is best interpreted as Arthaka as in the majority of BSk. works.

From isolated references to Atthaka Vagga in many Pāli works it is conjectured that "it may possibly have been the name of divisions of other works." In the whole of the Pāli Canon no other Atthaka Vagga can be traced though Anguttara has an Atthaka Nipāta and Th 1 and Th 2 contain Attha Nipātas. Though the absence of other Atthaka Vaggas does not preclude the possibility of the occurrence of other sections bearing that name no references to another Atthaka Vagga have been discovered so far.

26

Pārāyana Vagga

The next vagga in importance is the Pārāyana. It consists of 18 pieces; viz. a prologue in verse called the Vatthu-gāthā, 16 short dialogues in verse called Pucchās and an epilogue in prose and verse. The word Pārāyana occurs thrice in the text itself, but all these references are to be met with in the epilogue; viz. Sn. p. 218, Sn. 1130d and 1131a. The prose passage at p. 218 gives a commentary-like explanation of the term Pārāyana: Ekam ekassa ce pi pañhassa ai tham aññāya, dhammam aññāya, dhammānudhammam paṭipajjeyya, gaccheyy' eva jarāmaranassa pāram, pāramgamanīyā ime dhammā' ti, tasmā imassa dhammapariyāyassa pārāyanam t'veva

17. Malalasekera s.v., D.P.P.N.

adhivacanam. (If one were to comprehend the import of each one of these questions, and realise the Dhamma therein, and follow the path in accordance with the major and minor precepts of the Law, one would cross over to the further shore of old-age and death. As these teachings lead to overyonder, the name $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ is given to this disquisition on the Dhamma). The two stanzas Sn. 1129-1130 express the same idea in verse and explain the title $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$.

Although the title does not occur in any of the Pucchās (or pañhas) the central theme of the vagga is "The Way Beyond" or "Crossing Over." The idea of crossing over of the Flood (ogha) occurs 10 times. 18 The "passing beyond" of this "Sinful State" (visattikā) is mentioned 5 times, 19 and this is an idea common with other canonical texts, particularly Samyutta and Anguttara Nikāyas. The overcoming of birth and old-age (jāti and jarā) which is a necessary accompaniment of the "Going Beyond" is to be met with in 10 places. 20 An idea parallel to this is the abandoning of $(\sqrt{h\bar{a}} \text{ or } pa+\sqrt{h\bar{a}}) \text{ sorrow, or that of } j\bar{a}tijar\bar{a} \text{ (or } j\bar{a}ti \text{ and } j\bar{a}r\bar{a}), \text{ occurring } 7$ times in Sn.21 Connected is the idea of overcoming the material substratum of birth (upadhi) at Sn. 1057b and 1083b. The destruction of $(pa+\sqrt{bhid})$ ignorance (avijiā) occurs at Sn. 1105 f and 1078d, and of craving (tanhā) and attachment (kāma and its synonyms), 9 times.22 The other concepts emphasised are, the state of emancipation (vimokha) at Sn. 1088d, 1105e, and 1189d (the Buddha is called vimutta, the released, at 1101 and the emancipated one is mentioned at Sn. 1071c, 1072c, 1073c, 1074c and 1114d), cessation (nirodha) at Sn. 1037e, the destruction (uparodha, or verb $upa+\sqrt{rudh}$) of evil at Sn. 1036e, 1037df, 1110b, 1111d, tranquility (santi) at Sn. 1066a, 1067a, the tranquilled state (santipada) at Sn. 1096c. nibbāna at Sn. 1061d, 1062d, 1094c, 1108d, 1109d and nibbānapada at Sn. 1086d. Aiita questions the Buddha regarding the taints of the world at Sn. 1032; the dangers arising out of the world are mentioned at Sn. 1032, 1033, of ogha at 1092, 1093 and of sorrow and the arising of Ill at Sn. 1033, 1049, 1050 and 1051. The escape from the evils of the world, the crossing over of the Flood and the attainment of santi or nibbana are the dominant ideas in the vagga. The verb with \sqrt{tar} alone is used no less than 23 times in the Pucchās in addition to verbs like pajahati, thus justifying the title Pārāvana.

The word $p\bar{a}ra$ occurs thrice in the $Pucch\bar{a}s$ (Sn. 1059, 1105 and 1112); but in the latter two instances it is used in praise of the Buddha. In the

^{16.} Vide P.T.S. (s.v.) for examples quoted.

^{18.} Sn. 1052 c, 1059 c, 1064 d, 1069 d, 1070 b, 1081 e, 1082 g, 1083 g, 1096 b and 1101 b.

^{19.} Sn. 1053 d, 1054 d, 1067 d, 1085 e and 1087 d. 20. Sn. 1045 d, 1046 e, 1047 bd, 1048 d, 1052 d, 1060 d, 1079 f, 1080 f and 1081 g.

^{21.} Sn. 1056 c, 1057 c, 1058 a, 1082 b, 1079 c, 1020 c, and 1122 f. 22. Sn. 1068 cd, 1970 cd, 1082 f, 1083 f, 1085 c, 1103 a, 1123 d, (at 1101 and 1021 it is used as an epithet of the Buddha).

whole of Sn. the word occurs 43 times, together with its derivatives and cpds., evenly distributed in all the five vaggas. Of these, pāra, "the Beyond," is directly mentioned in five instances; viz. na pāram diguņam yanti (Sn. 714c), tinno ca pāram akhilo akankho (Sn. 1059d), gacche pāram apārato (Sn. 1129d) and maccudheyyapāram (Sn. 1146d). 'The idea of "crossing over" is incorporated in a simile at Sn. 771d, and pārasmim (loc.) occurs at Sn. 1018c and 1020d. This concept is totally different from pāramī or pāramitā of later Buddhism. Pāramgata occurs at Sn. 803d and pāragata at Sn. 21b, 210d, 359b and 638c. Pāra in the line, so bhikkhu jahāti orapāram (Sn. 1c-17c-that monk shuns the here and the beyond) has a different connotation from pāra in the rest of the references. The idea that is diametrically opposed to $p\bar{a}ram + \sqrt{gam}$ is at Sn. 15 b, oram agamanaya paccayase (casual antecedents for the return hither). The concept of "going beyond" is to be met with in numerous other canonical works; e.g. S. IV. 174, A.V. 4, M. III. 64, Th 1. 771-773, etc. and is one of the most fundamental tenets in early Buddhism.

27

Its Antiquity

This vagga appears to have been called Pārāyana from the earliest times.23 Several canonical works refer to it and quote from it. Sn. 1109 is found at S. I. 39 in the Devatā Samyutta, and at S. I. 40 the same stanza occurs with its first line reading, nandī sambandhano loko instead of nandīsamyojano loko. Yet there is no mention of the Pārāyana here. S. II. 47 refers to the Ajitapañha when quoting Sn. 1038, and the stanza is quoted again at S. II. 49 making it the topic of discourse up to p. 50. Anguttara refers to the Pārāyana 6 times. At A. I. 133 Punnakapañha of the Pārāyana is mentioned and Sn. 1048 quoted. At A. II. 45-46 the same stanza is quoted thus: Imā kho bhikkhave catasso samādhibhāvanā, idam pana etam sandhāya bhāsitam Pārāyane Punnakapañhe (These indeed, O monks, are the four meditations on concentration; it has been declared so in the Punnakapañha of the Pārāyana regarding this). The Udayapañha of the Pārāyana is mentioned at A. I 134, and Sn. 1106, 1107 are quoted from it. A. III. 399, 401 quote Sn. 1042 with the opening line reading differently²⁴ and refer to the Metteyyapañha of the Pārāyana. At A. IV. 63 the female lay-devotee Nandamātā is reported as reciting the Pārāyana with proper intonation (sarena) and Vessavana is pleased with it. Sn. 1064 is quoted at Kvu. 94; Sn. 1117 at Ap. 537, 25; Sn. 1118-1119 at Ap. 537, 26-28;

24. Sn. 1042a reads, so ubhantam abhiññāya, while the line at A. III. 399 reads, yo ubhante viditvāna.

Sn. 1119 at Vsm. 656 and Kvu. 64; besides the numerous instances where the verses of the Pārāyana are quoted in Commentaries and quoted and commented on in Nettippakarana.²⁵

Among the references in BSk. works²⁶ many of the following have already been mentioned in connection with the Atthaka Vagga. Divy. 20, 34, include it among the texts recited by Srona and the merchants respectively. The Dulva too mentions it in the episode of Srona. The Vinaya of the Sarvastivadins (Ch. Tok. XVI. 4, 56a) mentions Po-lo-ven (Pārāyana) as one of the texts recited by him, and includes it among the "great suttas" in a passage which is important for the history of the Canon. Po-lo-yen (The Way Across) is the 16th passage out of the 18 mentioned. The Arthavargivasūtra is No. 17, and the majority of the other passages is from D. In a list of sūtras "which should be taught to novices" occurring in the Vinaya of the Mahāsanghikas (Ch. Tok. XV. 8. 9. 3a) the Pa-ch'ung-ching (Atthaka Vagga) and Po-lo-ven are mentioned at the head. The Vinava of the Dharmaguptakas (chap. 54) too refers to the Pārāyana. Reference to it is also made in Abhidharmamahāyibhāsā (chap. 4), where it is stated that the Pārāyana was recited at a "Council" of 500 arhats held under Kaniska's patronage. Some of the passages specially cited are the second stanza of Posālamānavapucchā and Sn. 874. Mahāprajñāpāramitā Śāstra in its first chapter quotes the "Question of Mākandika" in the Atthaka Vagga (Sn. 837-840 are quoted), and in chapter 3 "The Question of Ajita in the Pārāyana" (Sn. 1032 ff.). Aśvaghosa refers to the brahmanas of the Parayana in his Buddhacarita (v. 1061) and Sūtrālankāra (canto 43). E. J. Thomas (Life of Buddha, p. 274) mentions the story of Bavari in a later form found among the MSS. discovered in Central Asia and cites Sieg und Siegling, "Tocharische Sprachreste'' I, p. 101.

From all these references, specially those in the Pāli Canon, which are older than the BSk. works, it is evident that the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ existed very early as a separate collection. Nowhere is Sn. mentioned when quotations are made from various $pa\tilde{n}has$. This is further proof that the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$, like the $Atthaka\ Vagga$ goes back to a period prior to the compilation of Sn. The various quotations also show that the questions of the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ have not undergone the rigid classification and arrangement found later in Sn. They are invariably called $pa\tilde{n}has$ and not $pucch\bar{a}s$ unlike in Sn.

W. Stede (Nd 2, p. xx) suggests that these pañhas may have existed in "some arrangement other than that which enumerates them simply as Pucchās 1, 2, etc." By carefully analysing the various MSS. of Nd 2 he notes that the Niddesa makes it "conclusive to a certain extent that groups

^{23.} Also Vide § III; Anesaki, J.P.T.S. 1906-7 p. 51, mentions that no less than 13 references are made to it in early texts.

^{25.} Vide Otto Franke and E.M. Hare, ibid. 26. Op. cit. (Sylvain Lévi).

of pucchās existed separately before they were set in the present arrangement, or were taken out of their present setting because they were greater favourites than others." The popularity of the Ajita Sutta perhaps led to its being placed at the head of the vagga. Metteyya and Punnaka Pañhas can be considered to have been equally popular, judging from the quotations made from them in Pāli works; and this probably explains their position as second and third respectively in the vagga. Udaya Pañha is also quoted from, but it is placed as No. 13. Stede concludes that either of Nos. 3 and 4 may have formed the last sutta of a separate group.

It is generally accepted that Nd 2 is older than Sn. The latter does not yield any information regarding the arrangement of these pucchās. All the 16 pieces are called *Pucchās*, whereas in Nd 2 some are called *suttas*; (viz. Nos. 1 and 3, and the others are called pañhas). The minor variations in the mode of referring to and commenting on these pieces in Nd 2 may shed some light on this question. Stede²⁷ shows that Nd 2 is uniform as regards the concluding statements in the Commentaries of the suttas up to No. 3; e.g. Ajita Sutta Niddeso samatto, etc. that Nos. 4 and 5 are numbered after the comments on them (e.g. Mettagu pañham catuttham samattam, etc.), and that the numeration ceases after No. 5. He questions whether Nos. 1-5 formed one separate collection. It is quite probable that Nos. 1-3 formed one collection and that Nos. 1-5 another, so that the group Nos. 1-3 was either included in the bigger group Nos. 1-5, or the earlier group was Nos. 1-3 which was later extended up to No. 5. It is quite obvious that Nos. 6-16 formed a group or groups independent of Nos. 1-5. The position of the popular Udaya Pañha as No. 13 may suggest that it may have been placed at the head of another group consisting of Nos. 13-16 just as the well-known Ajita Pañha was placed at the head of the earlier group (Nos. 1-3 or 1-5). The probability is that Nos. 6-16 consisted of two groups viz. Nos. 6-12 and 13-16. All these pieces were, at a subsequent date, taken together and gradually worked out into a legend by introducing Bāravī, the brahmin of the South.

28

The Vatthu Găthā

The legend of Bāvarī leads to the question of the relationship of the vatthugāthā and the epilogue to the pucchās of the Pārāyana. The Niddesa leaves the vatthu-gāthā (v.g) uncommented and it is doubtful whether they were known to its author. In some MSS. of Nd 2 (vide Nd 2 introduction) the text of the v.g. and that of the epilogue is to be met with, while in others only that of v.g. The inclusion of the v.g. and the epilogue in MSS. of Nd 2 does not help one to determine whether the author was acquainted with these two pieces, for it may have taken place long after the writing of Nd 2. The fact that the v.g. are not commented upon in the work shows either that the v.g. did not exist at the time of the writing of Nd 2. or that they may have existed in some form or other, but were not accepted as authentic by the author. The early occurrence of v.g. in verse is highly doubtful, but it is probable that the versification of an earlier existing prose legend may have taken place somewhere about the same time as the composition of the v.g. of the Nālaka Sutta. This introductory prose legend cannot be considered very old, for all the internal evidence of the v.g. and the epilogue shows that these pieces were at least a few centuries younger than the pucchās. It is probable that the legend of Bāvarī which was introduced as an ākhyāna-narrative by the reciters of these ballads, underwent certain changes and modifications as time went on, and finally became fixed in the present metrical rendering. The outcome is a short kāvya in itself in true epic-style.

The opening stanzas easily suggest their kinship with epic literature. A Kosalan brahmin (from Sāvatthi?) comes to the Southern Country (Dakkhināpatha of Deccan) and settles down at Mulakā (reading with Nd. 2 and Chalmers) on the banks of the upper Godhāvarī in the country of the Assakas (Aśmaka), probably not very far from Patițțhana (Pratișțhāna, the modern Paithan about 19.5° N 75° E).28 Then another brahmin visits him and demands (text, yācati—begs, Sn. 980d) 500 pieces. When Bāvarī replies that he has no money the other curses. The pronouncement of the curse (Sn. 983), its description (Sn. 984), the repercussions on Bāvari (Sn. 985), the appearance of the devatā (Sn. 986) and the conversation that ensues (Sn. 987-993) are truly characteristic of epic poetry. There are numerous instances of similar situations in the Sanskrit epics and other literature. The pronouncement of the curse in Nalopākhyāna and the gradual denouement of the plot in it could be compared with the legend of Bavari. The comparatively later jataka literature affords many parallels. Neumann (Reden p. 547) compares Sn. 984 with the description of the curse in Sakuntala. The tidings of the Buddha given by the devata cause immense joy in Bāvarī who summons his pupils and bids them visit the Buddha. In reply to their question as to how they would be able to recognize the Buddha, Bāvarī replies that he could be distinguished by the 32 characteristics of a mahāpurisa (super-man). He instructs them

^{27:} Ibid p. xxi.

^{28.} B.C. Law, in "India as described in the Early Texts of Buddhism and Jainism" pp. 157, 158, 218, tries to establish that this Bayari was Pasenadis teacher (Sn. A. II, 580) and that when he built his hermitage "near the Pancavaţi during Pasenadi's reign there came into existence a high road connecting Rajagaha and Patiţthana." (ibid. p. 219).

not to ask their questions verbally, but merely to think of them, so that the Buddha would give the appropriate answer.

The sixteen brahmins wend their way north through Patitthana to Māhissati (Māhīsmatī) south of the river Vetravatī which divides the Mandala of Avantī into north and south, the north having its capital at Ujjenī (modern Ujjain) and the south at Māhīsmatī.²⁹ and known as Avanti Dakkhināpatha.30 From there they proceed to Uijenī north of the river and to Gonaddha.31 They continue east to Vedisa known as "The Forest City" (Sn. 1011d, Vanasavhaya, identified by Cunningham with modern Bhīlsa in Gwalior State, 26 miles N.E. of Bhopāl), and then north-east to Kosambi (Kauśāmbī), and next north to Sāketa, Setayya and Sāvatthi, the capital of the Kosalas, then eastwards to Kapilavatthu (Kapilavāstu) of the Sākvas, and the city of Kusinārā (Krsīnagara) of the Mallas, then further north to Pāvā and Bhojanagara in the Malla country in the Himalayan foot-hills and finally south-east to Vesālī of the Magadhas and Pāsānaka cetiya near Rājagaha where they meet the Buddha. They are satisfied with the answers to their "mental" questions and salute the Buddha. With the invitation of the Buddha to ask him questions to have their doubts cleared, they begin asking questions one by one.

The vatthu-gāthā, as a whole, depict conditions much later than the time of the Buddha, or even the time of the compilation of the pucchās. Internal evidence and linguistic data show that they are decidedly later than the pucchās. It will be useful to analyse the internal evidence which consists chiefly of a study of the names of places mentioned in the story, the terms and technical expressions used, signs of the growth of the concept Buddha and the doctrinal emphasis. Firstly, the v.g. show intimate knowledge of the Dakkhināpatha, of far-off places like Mulakā (not identified) and Patitthana in the land of the Assakas north-western Hyderabad). The road taken by the 16 manavas was the trade-route running from North to South-East (Sāvatthi to Rājagaha).³² The simile at Sn. 1014b, mahālābham va vānijo (as a merchant—longs for—great gain) seems to allude to the caravan-men who followed these trade-routes. Even if the first route did exist as early as the time of Pasenadī (according to Sn.A. 580) it cannot be said that Buddhism had spread to these southern regions so early as the time of composition of the pucchās. It must have taken a considerable period of time before Buddhism spread to these regions, and places like Māhissati, Ujjenī, Gonaddha and Vedisa were

far away from the cradle of Buddhism. A knowledge of these places in the v.g. presupposes a time when Buddhism was known to the people in Dakkhināpatha even if it had not spread there. It is also of interest to note how the brahmins looked upon this region. Baudhāyana Grhya Sūtra V. 15 considers this region as unholy land.

Surāṣṭram Sindhu Sauyīram Avantī Dakṣināpatham. Etāni brāhmano gatvā punah saṃskāram arhati.

(It behoves a brahmin who goes to Surāṣṭra, etc., to perform his sacraments again). cp. Divy. 19. It is needless to say that under these conditions Brahmanism could not have spread to these regions very early. If that was so it is difficult to explain how Bāvarī a brahmin, and other brahmins mentioned in the v.g. could find their way here to a land so far south, even to the furthest limits of the unholy land. If Bāvarī was a historical figure he must have lived at a time when the brahmins had begun to consider the Dakkhiṇāpatha no longer as unholy land. This fact and the knowledge of the trade-route to the south-west suggest that the v.g. reflect a period when Dakkhiṇāpatha was well-known to Buddhist writers. The first time that this region is expected, with some degree of certainty, to have come under the influence of Buddhism, is during the reign of Asoka when he sent out his missionaries far and wide, Mahādeva was sent to Mahisamandela and Rakkhita to Vanavāsa (cp. Vedisam Vanasavhayam both presumably in Dakkhiṇāpatha. (Mhv. 12, 3-4).

The terms and technical expressions used in the v.g. point to a comparatively late period. The use of the words visaya (in Assakassa visaye—Sn. 977a) and mandira (in Kosalamandira-Sn. 996a, and Kusinārañca mandiram -Sn. 1012d) needs investigation. The word visava in the sense of region, country or kingdom may have had its origin in epic or Classical Sanskrit. It is not used in this meaning in Vedic. The nearest approach to it in old Pāli is to be found in words like Pettivisaya or Yamavisaya (the realm or domain of Petas and Yama respectively). This usage in the v.g. appears late. The word mandira is frequently found in late Sk. in the sense of house or mansion, as in Pali. Here it apparently stands for a political or regional division. If these regions were independent kingdoms (or cities as in the case of the latter) they would rather be referred to as desa or rattha, or nagara or rājadhāni. It is probable that these two mandiras were two of many such mandiras within a large empire. Such an empire came into existence for the first time in India's history under Candragupta (322-298 B.C.)33 and the next great empire was that of Asoka (272-232 B.C.)33. It may then be possible that the v.g. were written at least after the time of Candragupta. (Other available evidence tends to show that they were of still later date).

^{29.} Vide D. R. Bhandarkar, Carmichael Lectures 1918, p. 54.

^{30.} B. C. Law, op. cit. p. 104.

^{31.} According to B.C. Law (ibid p. 74), Māhīşmatī was later known as Gonaddha. But this is very doubtful and improbable.

^{32.} Rhys Davids, Buddhist India, p. 103.

^{33.} V. A. Smith, Early History of India, p. 206, assigns these dates.

The next point of interest lies in Sn. 1000-1001. The sixteen manayas learn from Bāvarī that the Buddha's distinguishing marks are the 32 characteristics. Here the v.g. present a phase of development in the Buddha-legend, for it is not his teaching that is mentioned, but his outward marks. Sn. 1001 dogmatically states that there are two, and only two, courses of action open to a being who has these 32 marks on his body. This is further proof of a gradual crystallization that has set in. There are a few epithets used in the v.g., e.g. sambuddho (7 times), 34 sabbadhammānapāragū (Sn. 992b), pabhankara (Sn. 991d), vivattacchadda (Sn. 1003c) and anāvaranadassāvī, among others at Sn. 991, 992, 995, 996, 1003, etc., but the majority of them are found in the older parts of the prose Nikāyas as well.

The phrase pubbevāsanavāsitā (Sn. 1009d) "impressed with the resultant force of their former deeds"35 too sheds some light on the date of the v.g. The doctrine of vāsanā is apparently alien to early Buddhism, though the same idea may be found in germinal form in phrases like pubbe katani kammam (actions done in the past). The developed idea as such is to be seen at Miln. 10, pubbe vāsanāya coditahadayo (his heart impelled by former impressions); Miln. 263, pubbevāsitavāsanā (cp. Sn. 1009d), and Vism. 185, katasamanadhammo, vāsitavāsano, bhāvitabhāvano (he who has discharged the obligations of a recluse, has the resultant force of his former deeds impressed on him and has developed his meditations). Vāsanā is often mentioned in Nettippakarana where it occurs no less than 12 times, 36 in a slightly different sense though fundamentally the same. Some suttas here are called vāsanābhāgiya (pertaining to v.). All the works in which this term is employed reflecting on an accepted theory of vāsanā, are comparatively late. Of them the date of Vism. is to some extent certain; i.e. 5th century A.C. Hardy limits the date of Nett. between 2nd century B.C. and 5th century A.C. though he is more inclined to favour a date in the neighbourhood of the latter limit.³⁷ Mrs. Rhys Davids in her Milinda Questions suggests a date towards the beginning of the Christian Era to Miln.; and in her Outlines of Buddhism p. 103, she assigns the date 80 B.C. These instances show that all the other references to vāsanā do not go back earlier than 2nd century B.C. This fact may, to some extent, help in determining the date of the v.g. All these references to vāsanā presuppose the existence of at least, a contemporary belief in "former impressions". It has already been noticed that this term does not occur in earlier Pāli works. It is probable that the concept of pubbe-

vāsanā was further developed into a fuller theory by the time of the Commentaries. The frequent occurrence of this idea in Nd 2 is very significant. The concluding passages in the comments on each of the 16 pucchās contains one standard phrase in which the word vāsanā occurs-(vide Nd 2, p. xxiv). Ye tena brāhmanena saddhim ekajjhā ekappayogā, ekādhippāyā, ekavāsanavāgitā. (They who were together with the brahmin, of similar undertakings, of similar intentions and impressed with similar former impressions).

It has been noticed earlier that either the v.g. did not exist at the time of the compilation of Nd 2, or if they did exist in some form or other they were not accepted as authentic by the writer of Nd 2. The occurrence of the same idea in both Nd 2 and the v.g. shows that neither belonged to a period prior to the development of a theory of vāsanā. The probability is that both the v.g. and Nd 2 were not separated from each other by a long interval of time, and that the subject-matter of the v.g. may have existed in some form before Nd 2 was compiled, and that the latter was influenced by it. This would explain the occurrence of the phrase ekajjhā, etc. in Nd 2 in spite of the fact that the v.g. are left uncommented in it. In the light of the above observations it may be inferred that these references to vāsanā do not date back earlier than 2nd century B.C., and that both the v.g. and Nd 2 which were separated by a short interval of time do not go back earlier than the earliest limits of the period to which Nett., Miln. and Vism. can be assigned; i.e. 2nd century B.C. As regards the v.g. this is further borne out by linguistic data.

The v.g. contain words and linguistic forms belonging to various periods. There are older forms lying side by side with much younger ones. These older forms are the same as the already existing early gāthā-forms and belong to a stratum which is generally called "the Gāthā-dialect." They either preserve the gāthā-idiom or are borrowings modelled on the language of the gāthās. There are numerous instances of younger forms, some betraying a strange resemblance to epic Sanskrit. It also contains highly developed and perhaps Sanskritic idioms and usages. Even though there is a preponderance of older forms, the younger forms show that these gāthās should belong to a later period. The idioms, Assakassa visaye (Sn. 977 a), vasī Godhāvarī kūle (Sn. 977) are purely Sanskritic. Tasseva upanissāya (Sn. 978 a) is a peculiar usage, which Bdhgh, comments as upayogatthe c'etam sāmivacanam, tam upanissāyā'ti attho,' (Sn. A. 581). The verb vācati (Sn. 980d) in the present tense following another in the past (āgañchi-Sn. 979 d) is typical of Sk. epic poetry. Bhavam nānupadassati (Sn. 983b) is again the Sk. idiom though the verb is a historical future form. Other instances of verbs in the present tense following a verb in the past are at Sn. 985, ussussati and na ramati after āhu in Sn.

^{34.} This word occurs 7 times in the v.g. and twice in the epilogue, viz. Sn. 992 a, 994 a, 995 f, 998 d, 1003 c, 1016 a, 1031 a, 1145 c, 1147 c. There are 10 other occurrences in Sn.-3 in Uraga Vagga and 7 in Mahā Vagga.

^{35.} Vide P.T.S. for vāsanā and vāsita; vāsanā=impression (Rhys Davids).

Also vide P.T.S., s.v.

^{37.} Nettippakarana (P.T.S.) Introduction p. xx.

984 d. The idiom bhotī jānāti (Sn. 988 a) is also Sanskritic. The loc. sg., asmim in asmim puthavimandale (Sn. 990 b) is very near Sk. asmin, as usually Pāli has imasmim. Puthaulmandala as a term referring to the world belongs to late Sk. The words visaya and mandira have already been discussed. The word apacca (Sn. 991c) is seldom used in Pāli although it goes back to Vedic apatya; but it is in frequent use in Sk. In spite of the old forms the sufficiently numerous younger forms are ample proof that the language of the v.g. taken as a whole is rather late. This is quite in accord with the overwhelming internal evidence which definitely shows that the v.g. are of no great antiquity.

29

It was stated earlier that the vathu-gāthā were meant to introduce the subject but apart from the legendary introduction which has little bearing on the pañhas (pucchās), the latter are still independent suttas. Bāvarī the brahmin, is spoken of as the teacher of the 16 māṇavas; and in the epilogue Pingiya is represented as singing Buddha's praises in Bāvarī's presence and converting him. This, apparently, is the only connecting link between the legend in the v.g. and epilogue and the pucchās. Yet, a rather successful attempt has been made to incorporate in this legendary epic, the pucchās, and to establish a connecting thread running through the whole vagga. However, one loses all contact with the story of Bāvarī in the pucchās. The Buddha is seen answering the eager questions of some would-be followers. Nothing else can be gathered from the pucchās about these interlocutors of the Buddha, except what can be seen from their views and philosophical leanings.

The position of the story of Bāvarī in the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ is best summed up in the words of E. J. Thomas, "The $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$ is indeed old. There is no reason for thinking that this legend in its present form is of the same age as the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana$... It is evident that even though the legend may be old, the same cannot be said of the details that may have been introduced when it was recast." 38

30

Uraga Vagga

Proceeding to the other three vaggas, the Uraga Vagga calls for attention next. It has already been mentioned (U.C.R. VI, 1) that the Uraga Sutta which has been placed at the head of the vagga has given its name to the

whole section. In many respects the opening Uraga Sutta resembles the Khaggavisāna Sutta, but unlike the two Yakkha-ballads, Hemavata and Ālavaka Suttas or Parābhava and Vasala Suttas which deal with practically the same topic, the two are not placed together in the vagga. Both Uraga and Khaggavisāna Suttas are didactic ballads with regular refrains running through them, and dealing with similar topics. Another poem which can be classed in the same category is Muni Sutta which resembles the other two in both subject-matter and style though the refrain is confined to only 8 out of its 15 stanzas (i.e. Sn. 212-219). All these three suttas are archaic in character. Available evidence suggests the independent existence of Khaggavisāna and Muni Suttas, prior to the compilation of Sn. The former is commented in Nd 2 (as an independent sutta) and is quoted in full at Ap. I, 8-13 (Paccekabuddhāpadāna) while the latter is mentioned in Asoka's Bhābru Edict as Muni gāthā, and in several other instances along with other sections of the Scriptures (supra).

Dhaniya and Kasibhāradvāja Suttas are similar to these three in subjectmatter, but form a different type of ballad. They can be grouped together as dialogue-ballads though the latter in reality is a narrative-ballad with the dialogue in mixed prose and verse. In both of them there is a great deal of the dramatic-element; both are didactic to a certain extent and both deal with farmers who eventually became lay-disciples. The former contains highly antithetical alternate verses uttered by Dhaniya the herdsman and the Bhagava respectively, while the latter in its main section (Sn. 76-81) contains one question by the brahmin and a long answer given by the Buddha in metaphors stating counterparts to some important Buddhist concepts, in the various implements used and actions done in ploughing. In both these suttas the Buddha is represented as retracing the very words of the interlocutors giving them a new value and a new twist so that the higher truths of his message are brought within the limited scope of a ploughman's (for herdsman's) terminology, One would normally expect these two suttas too to be grouped together like Nos. 6 and 7 and Nos. 9 and 10, on account of their similarities in style and theme and the technique employed in them.

The next poem Cunda Sutta differs from the first four suttas in theme and general tone. It presupposes a time when some monks were seen leading a life of evil and sin (Sn. 89). The gradual crystallisation of ideas regarding the ideal monk (Sn. 86) and the motive of preventing the lay ariyasāvakas losing their faith in the virtuous monks on account of these evil-doers (Sn. 90) show that the poem belonged to an age of developed monasticism. The inclusion of this sutta here perhaps serves to connect the four earlier suttas of lofty ideals with the three popular suttas that follow. The first of these enumerates the causes of man's downfall and

deterioration (parābhava), the second details the characteristics of a vasala (an out-caste in the strict Buddhist sense), and the third is a treatise on mettā (amity). The only characteristic that is common to Cunda Sutta and the two that follow it is that all three of them are dialogue-ballads. In the grouping together of the two suttas, Parābhava and Vasala may be seen signs of an attempt at some sort of arrangement of the suttas. Although the next sutta, Metta, is a didactic ballad it shares something in common with the two proceeding suttas—all three of them being popular in character and intended for the benefit of both monk and layman. Metta Sutta occurs in both Kh. (No. IX) and the Catubhānavāra (Parittas), whereas the other two are found repeated in the Parittas only.

The next two suttas, Hemavata and Alavaka, are of high literary merit—both containing the dramatic element to some extent. The fact that they deal with yakkhas appears to have been the reason for their being grouped together. The next sutta (Vijaya) contains a list of the parts of the human body, in poetical form. Placed last in the vagga is the old Muni Sutta, which probably entered the vagga last of all.

Judging from the subject-matter, type of ballad, and the grouping of poems in the vagga, it appears that this section now known as the *Uraga Vagga* consisted of only 10 suttas at a certain stage; thus:

Group I, Suttas 1-4,

No. 5 separating Groups I and II.

Group II, Nos. 6 and 7.

No. 8 separating Groups II and III,

Group III, Nos. 9 and 10.

This clearly explains the position of the old Muni Sutta as the last member of the vagga, placed immediately after so late a piece as the Vijaya Sutta. In spite of its resemblance to Khaggavisāna and Uraga Suttas in language, style and theme, it has not been grouped with them.

31

Culla and Maha Vaggas

The next two sections of Sn., Culla Vagga (Cvg.) and Mahā Vagga (Mvg.) consist of 14 and 12 suttas respectively. The total number of stanzas comprising the 14 suttas of Cvg. is a little more than half that of Mvg. (i.e. Cvg. 183, and Mjg. 361). The majority of the suttas in Cvg. are short pieces whereas those of Mvg. are comparatively longer. This perhaps may have been the reason for naming these two sections as Culla and

Mahā Vaggas respectively. Yet there are exceptions as regards the length of the suttas in the two vaggas. The most outstanding are Brāhmaṇa-dhammika Sutta (No. 7 of Cvg.) consisting of 32 stanzas, Dhammika Sutta (No. 14 of Cvg.) consisting of 29 stanzas and Subhāsita Sutta (No. 3 of Mvg.) containing only 5 stanzas in addition to the introductory prose. There are 7 suttas in Cvg. containing 10 stanzas or less, 39 and 5 containing a number ranging from 17 to 12.40 The other two are the exceptionally long suttas just mentioned. Five suttas of Mvg. contain 32 or more stanzas each, 41 in addition to the prose in the majority of them; and the number of stanzas in six others ranges from 20 to 26.42 The Subhāsita Sutta which is exceptionally short for this vagga has already been mentioned. It is curious to note that both the long suttas in Cvg. are named Dhammika and that they occur as seventh and fourteenth members of the vagga. The fact that one of them is the last sutta of the vagga, and that they occur at regular intervals may suggest that they did not originally belong here.

The suttas of Cvg. may be classified roughly into two categories: 1. dialogue-ballads and 2. didactic-ballads; but the classification is not complete by itself. On the one hand, all the suttas are didactic in some degree or other, but on the other, practically each sutta seems to represent a type by itself. Amagandha and Sammāparibbājaniya Suttas are dialogue-ballads entirely in verse where the interlocutor speaks but once and the Buddha replies with a discourse. An interesting feature is the refrain running through the discourse in both suttas. They deal with topics of general interest in all periods of the history of Buddhism. Kimsīla Sutta also appears as such a dialogue, although the questioner's name is not mentioned. It is highly didactic and may equally be classed with the pure didactic-ballads.

There are four dialogue-ballads with prose introductions. The first of them, Mahāmangala Sutta is highly popular in character, and the second Sūciloma is didactic. Both these suttas introduce supernatural beings as interlocutors. The former contains a refrain while the latter has none. The next Vangisa Sutta, is an ode in the form of a dialogue-ballad. This is the least didactic of all the 14 suttas in Cvg.; yet, it is by no means lacking in it. Here the interlocutor plays a more active part than in the other dialogue-ballads of this vagga. The last Dhammika Sutta is an eulogy of the Buddha followed by a discourse dealing with the sīlas and such other topics. There are also four didactic-ballads entirely in verse; viz. Hiri Dhammacariya, Nāvā and Uṭṭhāna Suttas. Nāvā Sutta is named after the simile employed in it (Sn. 321) and the other three after their opening

^{39.} Nos. 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 and 11.

^{40.} Nos. 1, 2, 4, 12 and 13. 41. Nos. 4, 6, 9, 11 (with vatthu-gāthā) and 12. 42. Nos. 1, 2, 5, 7, 8 and 10.

words as in the case of Kimsīla Sutta. The opening question in Kimsīla Sutta can be explained as a vatthu-gāthā, although it is not specifically mentioned so as in Rāhula Sutta. The Rāhula Sutta differs from the above four in that it has two vatthu-gāthās consisting of a question and an answer, and ends with a concluding prose sentence. The Brāhmaṇadhammika Sutta is essentially didactic in its verse section, but it contains an introductory prose dialogue and concludes with a confession of faith in prose. The opening Ratana Sutta cannot be placed in any particular category. It is neither a didactic poem nor a dialogue, but a paritta of later date with a good deal of saccakiriyā (asseveration). The Culla Vagga thus presents a confused mass.

It is not quite possible to sift out the suttas that were included in the vagga subsequent to the formation of a vagga as such, or spot out at a glance the suttas on which the vagga was built later. On the whole, this section as a vagga is decidedly later than the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas, and probably later than many suttas of the Uraga Vagga. As regards individual poems, the occurrence of the two long suttas (Nos. 7 and 14) in a section of short (culla) suttas leads one to the inference that they originally did not belong to this vagga. One may be justified in saying that these two were probably either importations to the vagga or were in existence in some other collection prior to the formation of Culla Vagga. Another sutta that appears foreign to the vagga is Ratana Sutta. From its internal evidence and linguistic data it will be seen that it is a comparatively late poem. This, along with the fact that it occurs at the head of the vagga seems to suggest that it need not necessarily have belonged to this vagga at the outset. Neither does it follow from this that the Cvg. was older than these three suttas; and the question of whether the two longer suttas belonged to another group of suttas (vagga) before Cvg. came into existence will be discussed later.

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Mahā Vagga

The suttas of the Mahā Vagga are a little more uniform in character. The Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka Suttas are narrative-ballads with occasional dialogue. It has already been noticed that these three suttas represent the earliest beginnings of a life of the Buddha in verse (U.C.R. Vol. VI, 2). It is established beyond any doubt that the Nālaka Sutta is the same as the Moneya-sūte of Asoka's Bhābru Edict. An analysis of Nos. 1 and 2 of Mvg. shows that they are very old pieces. Sylvain Lévi⁴³ identifies

Pabbajjā Sutta as being mentioned in the Vinaya of the Sarvāstivādins (chap. XXIV) in a passage which refers to other texts as well, which he considers are of great importance for the history of the Canon. Of the other nine suttas, eight (except Salla, No. 8) are "mixed-ballads." Seven of them are dialogues. It has been pointed out that No. 3, Subhāsita Sutta, is too short for a section of "long" suttas (mahā). Nos. 4-7, 9 and 10 are uniform in every way. No. 8 is a didactic-ballad deriving its name from the oft-used metaphorical term salla occurring in stanza 19 (Sn. 592). The Dvayatānupassanā Sutta stands as a class by itself in the whole of Sn. It conveys the general impression of a late sutta. Its position as last in the vagga, as in the case of Ratana Sutta which is at the head of Cvg. seems to strengthen the supposition that it was an additional accretion, though its lateness is not necessarily proved thereby. Evidence for its lateness is to be sought in the sutta itself.

The majority of the pieces in Mvg. can be called "mixed-ballads" with dialogue; viz. Nos. 3-7, 9 and 10. Six of these, including No. 3, Subhāsita Sutta, are best described as "sutta-ballads," i.e. they are discourses in the form of mixed-ballads-and the latter is more in the nature of an exposition (veyyākaraṇa), rather than a ballad proper. There are also four such "sutta-ballads" in Cvg. viz. Nos. 5, 7, 12 and 14, which occur in a regular pattern in the vagga. (Suttas 5 and 12 resemble each other in outward form: both are short mixed-ballads with dialogue, though fundamentally the latter is an ode followed by a discourse, while the former, a didactic discourse in answer to a question. The pair Nos. 7 and 14 has been discussed at length.) The suttas 6 and 13 too resemble each other in many respects, both being entirely in verse. The only difference between the two is that the former is a straight-forward didactic poem while the latter is a didactic discourse in answer to a question; but the two are similar in outward form. The symmetry seen in these three pairs of suttas cannot be a mere accident. It seems likely that in building up the Culla Vagga these suttas have been so placed as to work out a definite pattern.

This leads to the question whether these suttas belonged to some other group or vagga before Cvg. came into existence. If there was any such group some of the suttas now found in Mvg. should also have been included in it, for, the existence of a section called Māhā Vagga without a corresponding Culla Vagga is very doubtful. The resemblance of suttas 4-7, 9, and 10 of Mvg. to the four "mixed-ballads" of Cvg. in form and style suggests that they too may have been included in such a group. There is nothing to prevent No. 8 of Mvg. being in the same group, for it could

^{43.} J. A. 1915. Regarding Bimbisārapratyudgama he says, "Le P'in-po-cha-lo-po-lo-cha-k'ia-mo-nan, 'Bimbisāra vient au-devant' est sans doute le Pabbajjāsutta du Sutta Nipāta." cp. Mvastu. II. 198, Vinaya of the Mūlasarvāstivādins, Sanghabhedavastu chap. 4: Vinaya of the Dharmaguptakas, Upasampadāvastu chap. 31.

^{44.} Examples of Mahā and Cūlla (Cūla) Vaggas occurring together in the Canon are too numerous and need no mention here. Vide D.P.P.N., Malalasekera, s.v.

be argued that as No. 9 in Mvg. is rather expository in character, No. 8 which is an expository didactic poem should have been placed in front of it as in the present vagga. But the greater probability is for the same type of "mixed" dialogue-ballads to be grouped together, like the pucchās of the Pārāyana. This would mean that the hypothetical vagga consisted of Cvg. 5, 7, 12 and 14 and Mvg. 1-7, 9 and 10.

This reflects no light whatsoever on the question of the age of the suttas found in these two vaggas. Beyond any reasonable doubt Moneyva Sutta (Nālaka discourse) could be placed among the oldest suttas in Sn. The age of the suttas does not necessarily determine whether they belonged to a particular group (or groups) or not, for, they can exist independently and be introduced into other collections at subsequent dates; e.g. the old Muni Sutta, a comparative new-comer to Uraga Vagga. This further justifies the exclusion of old suttas like Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka from the reconstructed group of ballads. Moreover the position of these suttas in Mvg. indicates that they were probably additions made when two vaggas grew in place of a vagga of mixed-ballads. (This need not necessarily have belonged to Sn., and its independent existence like the Pārāyana or Atthaka Vagga is not improbable). Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas were placed at the head of Mvg. (and not Cvg.) probably on account of their length. The only plausible explanation of the position of the short Subhāsita Sutta as the third member of the vagga is that it could have occurred in some collection or other together with the preceding suttas; but this is highly improbable. As it differs considerably from the "sutta-ballads" it cannot be surmised that it may have occurred immediately before Sundarikabhāradvāja Sutta in an earlier group. As regards the Salla Sutta, its length and the expository nature of the following (Vāsettha) sutta may have been responsible for its inclusion in the present Mahā Vagga, and probably it did not exist together with the others in an earlier group. The Nālaka Sutta seems to have been introduced immediately after the regular "mixed-ballads." The chief reason for its inclusion here and not in Cvg. is its length. One would normally expect this sutta to be placed beside the other two suttas which are directly connected with the life of the Buddha. The fact that this is separated from them also suggests that these three suttas did not originally belong here, but were introduced after the two groups Mvg. and Cvg. were formed.

It may also be possible that the three suttas, Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka were earlier found together in one group at a certain stage, and that eight suttas were added after the Padhāna Sutta to make up the Mahā Vagga. The fact that these three suttas belong to an early stratum does not necessarily imply that they may have been the only suttas of their class. Moreover, Nālaka Sutta does not form a continuous narrative with the other two suttas. A comparison with the later BSk. sources. such as Lal, which aims at dealing with a continuous life of the Buddha, or Mvastu, which contains accounts of incidents connected with his life shows that these three suttas in Sn. deal with only three of the numerous incidents reported in later sources. It is quite probable that some suttass parallel to those found in Lal. and Mvastu, were lost and that Sn. contains only a partial picture. The fact that only these three are preserved shows that they are but fragments of an earlier stratum brought to light at a subsequent date and included in the group now known as Mahā Vagga. It has already been pointed out that their relative position in the vagea shows that they are additions made to the vagga rather than parts of its framework. From these it is evident that Mvg. was not built upon these suttas but it grew incorporating them.

It is not possible to determine whether any one of these two vaggas was earlier than the other (as a vagga). Neither of them is a perfect "finished" chapter. Though the majority of the suttas conforms to the designations Culla and Maha, in length, many exceptions have already been noted. The themes in the "minor" suttas (i.e. those in Cvg.) are equally lofty as those of the suttas in Mvg. Therefore the possibility of the two sections being named according to the nature of the themes can be set aside. There is no perfect uniformity in the type of suttas in both vaggas though as many as six suttas of Mvg. can be classified as "mixed" dialogueballads. The same type of sutta is to be seen in Cvg. too; viz. Nos. 4, 5, 7, 12 and 14, though the didactic element seems to predominate in them. The commonest type of sutta in Cvg. is the pure didactic-ballad entirely in verse. 45 but Mvg. No. 8 (Salla Sutta) too can be said to belong to the same type. The similarity of these two vaggas even on this point suggests that they cannot be separated from each other in point of time. Both vaggas date back to the same period, and the occurrence of the older suttas in Mvg. proves nothing beyond the fact that they were incorporated into the vagga during the time of its compilation, which perhaps was synchronous with the collation of Sutta Nipāta as an anthology.

(Continued)

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^{45.} There are seven such suttas; viz. Nos. 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 13.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

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Additional Abbreviations

Aor.—aorist

Brh. Ār.—Bṛhadāraṇyaka Upaniṣad

Dh.—Dhammapada (PTS, 1914)

E./W.Pkr.-Eastern/Western Prakrit

J-Jātaka (PTS, 7 vols., 1877-97; reprinted 1962-64)

JA—Jātaka Commentary (ibid.)

Mbh.—Mahābhārata

P.—Pali

PBR-Pali Buddhist Review

Pva—Paramatthadīpanī (Petavatthu Commentary, PTS, 1894)

PtsA—Saddhammappakāsinī (Paţisambhidāmagga Commentary, PTS, 3 vols., 1933-47)

S.A.—Sāratthappakāsinī (Saṃyutta Nikāya Commentary, PTS, 3 vols., 1929-37)

THE URAGA SUTTA

33

It is now possible to proceed to the analysis of a few individual suttas of the Sutta Nipāta with the aid of the criteria detailed earlier. The following analysis is restricted to a proportionately small number of suttas and further inferences regarding those that are left out may be drawn on similar lines. Every opportunity will be taken to discuss problems of general application to the whole work under the discussion of these suttas so that most of the problems connected with the majority of the suttas, will be eventually touched upon. An attempt has been made to make the selection as representative as possible. A few suttas from each vagga and from each type in the classification on pp. 88-90 in PBR 1, 2, are taken up for analysis. Wherever possible the suttas will be discussed in the order in which they occur in Sn., and at the same time those that bear some similarity to one another will be arranged in some order so as to bring out the properties they share in common.

The title Uraga Sutta is undoubtedly derived from the simile, urago jinnam iva tacam puranam (as a serpent—discards—its old and worn-out slough) in the refrain that runs through the whole length of the poem. Its ability to cast off its slough, an important characteristic of the uraga. has been introduced here to describe the action of the bhikkhu who renounces both "Here and the Beyond." There seems to be some mysterious significance attached to this creature which is described as ura-ga (lit. belly-crawler). Some uragas are considered to belong to a class of semi-divine beings: they are kāma-rūpī (SnA. 13, capable of changing their form at will). The semi-divine characteristics are usually attributed to nagas rather than to uragas. There are numerous instances in the Pali Canon of nagas changing their form or appearing in disguise. The Commentary (SnA.) refers to Sańkhapālanāgarājā in Sańkhapālajātaka JA. V. 161-177). At Vinaya I, 86 a nāga is said to have received ordination disguised as a young man. An equally mystic significance is associated with the uraga's casting off of the slough. The Commentary (SnA. 13-14) describes in detail the four ways in which it does so. PvA. 61-62 commenting on Pv. I. 12, 1, urago va tacam jinnam hitvā gacchati sam tanum (he goes abandoning his body--corporeal form--as a serpent discards its wornout slough) says that a serpent casts it off whenever it wishes to do so, as easily as removing a garment, with no attachment to it whatsoever. Here the simile of the serpent's slough is employed to describe the body at death. The mysterious significance of the uraga is more pronounced in a passage occurring at S.I. 69. It describes four young creatures (daharā) which should not be despised nor abused viz. a khattiya, an uraga, aggi and a bhikkhu. A khattiya when he becomes king can inflict heavy punishment on man, woman or child that despises him; an uraga can sting them; therefore he who holds his life dear should not despise it. Fire with necessary fuel (upādāna) can blaze forth into a huge flame and burn them who despise it. The virtuous bhikkhu can burn with his flame-like majesty. The uraga is also described as, uccāvacehi vannchi urago carati tejasi (v. 1. tejasā) in the Samyutta: (In diverse appearances1 the uraga roams in its own splendour). It is described here as a mysterious and wonderful creature demanding respect and adoration. The Commentator is silent about the pāda, urago carati tejasi, and does not confine the quality of tejas to uraga alone. Fire too possesses the same quality. The tejas (splendour or better, power) of the uraga is perhaps due to one or more of the following reasons:-

^{1.} Cp. Comy. S.A. I, 132 nānāvidhehi santhānehi, etc.

- 1. Its extraordinary force or strength.
- 2. Its ability to change at will (kāmarūpa).
- 3. The ease with which it casts off its slough.
- 4. The fact that it possesses two tongues (dujivho cp. J.V. 425 cp. II. 458, and III. 458).
- 5. Perhaps its ability to live even in fire, like the mythical salamander.²

Uraga is almost synonymous with naga, a creature equally gifted with miraculous powers and great strength. Some of them are semi-divine. Nāga is often used as an epithet for arahants and sometimes of the Buddha. Popular etymology explains nāga as "āgum na karoti" (cp. Śn. 522a); and the origin of the epithet is perhaps based on the great power of the nāga. The phrase hatthi-nāga suggests an equally mystic significance. Yet, it is noteworthy that the word naga is hardly or never used in the Pali Canon in the same simile of its shedding the slough. Though sappa, ahi, āsīvisa and bhujangama are synonyms for uraga, they fall short of the connotation of the latter term. There is no real magical power attributed to them, unlike the *uraga* or the *nāga*. The last of the four synonyms bhujangama, though not in frequent use in canonical Pāli seems to be nearer uraga than ahi. Sappa is treated as a mere poisonous snake in similes. It should be avoided; e.g. Sn. 1b, 768b, Th 1. 457, and J.V.18. Āsīvisa is employed in similes to describe kāma and similar evil tendencies; e.g. Th 2. 451, J. III. 525, cp. 267 and S. IV. 172-174. It is called uggatejas at S. IV. 172 ff. and is a synonym for the mahādhātus.

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It has already been remarked that the emphasis on uraga in the refrain has been the basis of the title $Uraga\ Sutta$. There are three other suttas in Sn named after a simile or metaphor occurring in them; viz. I. 3 (Khagga- $vis\bar{a}na$), II. 8 ($N\bar{a}v\bar{a}$) and III. 8 (Salla). Over half the number of suttas in Sn are named after the interlocutors mentioned in them. There are 36 such suttas; viz. Sn. I. 2, 4, 5, 9, 10; II. 5, 11, 12, 14; III. 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11; IV. 7, 8(?), 9, 16; and V. 2-17. To this may be added I. 7 which is called

At Vin. IV. 108 a nāga (Vin. I. 24, nāgarājā) is described as *iddhimā*: but in each case he was overcome by the (greater) *tejas* of his opponent (Sägata and the Buddha) cp. J.I. 360. It is also told at AA. I. 324 ff. how Sāgata tamed the fierce nāgarājā. (Note by

3. Vide Mrs. Rhys Davids: Similes in the Nikāyas, J.P.T.S. 1906, pp. 52 II., 1908 pp. 180 ff.

Aggikabhāradvāja Sutta in the Commentary. Of the above list Pasūra Sutta is rather doubtful, for Pasūra may not be a proper name as Neumann (Reden p. 528) suggests. He favours the commentarial gloss pali-sūro and says that it is pa-sūra (pra-sūra) like pācariya at M.I. 509. There are 15 suttas named after the topics or themes discussed in them; viz. Sn. I. 6. 7, 8, 12; II. 1, 2, 4, 7, 13; III. 1, 2, 12; and IV. 1, 6, 11. To this may be added the alternative names given in the Comy. for I. 11 (Kāyavicchandanika) II. 8 (Dhamma), II. 12 (Nigrodhakappa), II. 13 (Muni or Mahāsamaya). III. 4 (Pūraļāsa) and III. 11 (Moneyya). In addition to the six suttas mentioned in the note on p. 79 in PBR 1, 2, as being named after their opening words, Sn. IV. 10 (Purābheda) is named after the opening word of the second stanza (i.e. Buddha's reply). The four Atthakas have already been mentioned (PBR 1, 3, p. 143) to contain in their opening lines the words after which they are named. This makes a total of 11 suttas that are named after an opening line. The titles of 9 of these suttas (i.e. except Purābheda and Attadanda) have direct bearing on the topics discussed in them. The other four suttas in Sn. viz. I. 11, IV. 12, 13 and 14 are given descriptive titles. It is significant that all the four suttas named after a simile occurring in them are pure didactic ballads and all the suttas named after persons are dialogue ballads. Those that are named after topics discussed in them belong to various types. There are dialogue ballads like Vasala and Brāhmaņadhammika Suttas, didactic poems such as Muni and Kāma Suttas, narratives like Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas and doctrinal dissertations such as Dvayatānupassanā Sutta belonging to this group. All the suttas, named after their opening words are didactic poems.

Coming back to the Uraga Sutta, the effectiveness of the simile of the serpent's skin may have been one of the reasons for placing this sutta at the head of the vagga, which in turn derives its name from the former. This is the only vagga in Sn. which is named after a sutta. However, the practice of naming vaggas after suttas is not rare in other parts of the Canon. There are two Yodhājīva Suttas occurring in the Pañcaka Nipāta of the Anguttara, viz. III 89 ff. and 93 ff., and the vagga in which they occur is called Yodhājīva (III. 84-110). Similarly, the second vagga in the Majjhima, Sīhanāda, I. 63-122) is named after the two opening suttas Cūlasīhanāda and Mahāsīhanāda (Nos. 11 and 12) and the eleventh vagga (Devadaha, II. 214-226, III. 1-24) derives its name from the opening Devadaha Sutta (No. 101). In such instances as these it need not be the opening sutta that is always responsible for the name of the vagga. In the Udana, the third vagga, (Nanda, Ud. 21-33) derives its name from the second udāna in it, its fifth vagga Sonatthera, Ud. 47-61) from its sixth member, its sixth vagga (Jaccandha, Ud. 62-73) from the simile in the fourth piece in it, and the last vagga (Pātaligāma, Ud. 80-93) from the sixth

^{2.} Here fire and the *uraga* both possess *tejas*. A. K. Coomaraswamy in his *Hinduism* and *Buddhism* makes out that the Dragon is the sacrificer and the sacrifice, i.e., connected with the smoke coming from the sacrifical altar. Referring to S.B. I. 6.3.14 ff, he attempts to identify the Dragon with the Projenitor. Some such mystical significance may be among the reasons for ascribing *tejas* to the *uraga*.

udāna in it. The first two vaggas of Pv. are named after their concluding members. Uragapetavatthu and Ubbaripetavatthu respectively. Of them the Uraga Vagga is of special interest here. The first verse of the vatthu at Pv. 11 (I. 12. 1) contains the simile of the serpent's worn-out slough, and this is the only reason for naming the vatthu and the vagga, Uraga. The Comy. associates this vatthu with an uraga (serpent) which was responsible for the death of the individual referred to in the story. The illustrative story in the Comy. is the same as that at J. III. 162-168, which also contains the text at Pv. I. 12 in full.

The simile of the snake casting off its slough seems to be rather popular in Pāli verse. The line at Pv. I. 12^1 is also found at Ap. 394, 13. In Mora Jātaka (J. IV. 341) the hunter renounces his career as a hunter even as a serpent discards its old worn-out skin (tucam va jiṇṇṇam urago purāṇaṃ). Pv. IX. 28 contains the same line. This simile is also employed to describe how Fortune keeps the fool at bay at J. V. 100 and VI. 361:

Sirī jahati dummedham jinnam va urago tucam

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The 17 stanzas of the text describe the *bhikkhu* who overcomes anger, lust, craving, arrogance, hatred, doubts and perplexities and other impediments, has found no essence (sāra) in all forms of being, sees everything as void being free from covetousness, passion, malevolence and delusion, has eradicated all evil tendencies with no leanings whatsoever towards them, is free from all such qualities which form the basis for earthly existence, and has destroyed all obstacles. He verily is "the *bhikkhu* who shuns both Here and the Beyond as a serpent its old and worn-out skin."

The tone of the sutta is generally archaic and the language preserves an early stratum of Pāli. The words and forms of interest are:—Oraparam (Sn. 1c-17c), a simple dvandva cpd. meaning "here below -cp. Sk. avaraand the beyond," cp. parovaram (Sn. 353, etc.). The ora and the pāra are the limitations (sīma) to a true bhikkhu. If he wishes to go beyond them (sīmātigo, cp. Sn. 795a) he should rid himself of all obstacles and leanings which act as causes (lit. causal antecedents) for his downfall (cp. Sn. 15b). The concept ora has already been noted (PBR 1, 3, pp. 147-8) as being the opposite of pāra; but pāra in this context is quite different from that of the Pārāyana and other places in Sn. Here it merely denotes birth in other existences whereas elsewhere (loc. cit.) it is almost a synonym for nibbāna. Udacchida (Sn. 2a, 3a) cp. Sk. ud-a-chid-at; augmented radical Aor. 3 sg. cp. Vedic. The change -a+ch->-acch- is due to

metrical reasons and for preservation of quantity. This is a pure gathaform not met with in canonical prose. There are four other such augmented radical Aor. forms in this sutta: viz. udabbadhī (Sn. 4a), ajjhagamā (Sn. 5a), accagamā (Sn. 8b) and accasārī (Sn. 8a-13a). This type of Aor. is very frequent in Sn. and other old (gāthā-Pāli.4 Udabbadhī is usually explained as being formed from $ud+\sqrt{vadh}$ cp. $udavadh\bar{t}t$. It is probable that this verb is associated with $ud+\sqrt{vrh}$, brighati, to tear, cp. A.V. abarhīt and Brh. Ār. avrksat, P. udabbahe (Sn. 583b, opt. 3, sg.) and abbahi (Aor. 3 sg.) in the phrase abbahi vata me sallam used frequently in Th 1 and Th 2. The probable development of udabbadhī from $ud+\sqrt{vrh}$ is as follows:—Vedic udabarhīt ud-a+v/b (v. in vrh)>P. udabb-: Vedic -h-> P. -dh- cp. Vc. iha>P. idha. It may be possible that this form is the result of a contamination of the two roots vadh and vrh but either of the two can give this form directly and makes the explanation of a contamination superfluous. Ajjhagamā (adhi-a-gam-at) and Accagamā (ati-a-gam-at) cp. abbhidā (J. I. 247), āsadā (Th 1.774), acchidā (Sn. 357c) and udacchidā (supra). Accasārī (occurring in both nāccasārī and paccasārī) ati-a-sār-īt, from \sqrt{sr} , sarati. Neumann (Reden, p. 406) suggests atyasmārī and pratyasmārī, but the explanation in the Comy., na atidhāvi and na ohivi is preferable. Samuhatase (Sn. 14b) cp. paccayāse (Sn. 15b), double Vc. nom. pl. from-āsas>-āso>-āse; -o>-e is a dialectical variation influenced by E. Pkr. (Māgadhī). This double nom. with Māgadhī -e is rather frequent in early Pali poetry. In Sn. alone it is seen to occur 20 times, 10 of which are in the Atthaka Vagga. Neumann (Reden, p. 407) says that such forms as samū-hatāse are not "Māgadhīsms" but periphrastic perfects; samuhata+āse. It would be rather straining to construe a perfect in such contexts as these, and his suggestion, however useful, is not tenable. Hetukappā— "which act as a cause" (Sn. 16b). The cpd. appears to be dialectical and nearer the older language, cp. khaggavisānakappo" "resembling a rhinoceros" (Sn. 35d-75d).

37

The Uraga Sutta is written in a metre described as Aupachandasaka by Helmer Smith (SnA. 463). The regular Aupachandasika metre differs from the Vaitālīya which consists of two half verses with 30 morae each, in that it has an extra long syllable added to each line of 14 and 16 morae respectively in the Vaitālīya. The metre of these stanzas is rather irregular. The number of morae in the first half-verse varies from 32 to 36, but the average seems to be 33, as in the case of the common second half of all these stanzas. The extra syllables in the longer lines may be explained

^{4.} Vide Geiger, Pāli Literatur und Sprache, 159 ff.

as anacrusis. Helmer Smith (ibid.) further notes pādas Sn. 6b, 7a, 8a-13a and 14b as irregular. Though this metre is similar to Aupacchandasika which became fixed in the Classical period of Sanskrit literature this particular rhythm cannot be considered so late as that, for it may have been in use long before a metre as such came to be fixed.

Another noticeable feature here, as well as in all Pāli poetry is the apparent disregard of metrical rules. This probably may be the result of the composers being guided more by the ear (rhythm) than by such artificial means as fixed metres. Moreover, in all popular poetry metrical rules are not strictly observed. However, the beat and rhythm of these lines resemble those of dance metres which are usually free and easy metres not subject to artificial regulations.

The style of this *sutta* has already been commented upon. It is a ballad in every respect, though it is used for a didactic purpose. The purpose of the refrain in lines cd in each stanza is to lay emphasis on the central theme. There is a refrain in the initial line and the greater part of the second line of stanzas 8-13,

Yo nāccasārī na paccasārī sabbam vitatham idam ti vīta—

There is perfect antithesis in the two halves of all these stanzas. Invariably the stanza begins with yo and the second half with so bhikkhu. In spite of this and the lucidity of diction there is no poetic extravagance which characterises later compositions. Popular similes are freely used to describe the bhikkhu who leads a life in accordance with Buddhist ethics. Neumann (Reden, p. 408) points out a few parallels in Mbh. and other early literature, viz. jīrṇaṃ ivacam sarpa ivāvamucya (Mbh. V. 39, 2; cp. XII. 250, 11) and yathā pādodaras tvacā vinirmucyate (Praśnopaniṣad, 5, 5; also vide Bṛh. Ār. IV. 4.10). Other similes are at Sn. 1b, 2b, 4b, (compared by Neumann with Rgveda I, 32, 8) and 5b.

There is nothing extraordinary in thought and ideology in the sutta. The emphasis is on the conduct of the bhikkhu. It is noteworthy that there are 80 references to bhikkhu in the gāthās of Sn. (in addition to over 15 in the prose), 77 to muni (24 of which refer to the Buddha) and over 40 to samaṇa, at least 17 of which are used without any specific reference to a Buddhist samaṇa. The Saṅgha is mentioned 8 times in the Ratana Sutta and 4 times elsewhere in both prose and verse. All the references to bhikkhu, muni and samaṇa amply justify Fausböll's statement "we see here a picture not of life in monasteries but the life of hermits in its first stage." The Uraga Sutta like Tuvaṭaka and Sammāparibbājaniya Suttas is a splendid

example of a poem that describes the true bhikkhu just as Muni Sutta describes the muni.

The few technical expressions used indicate a phase of development in the doctrine. The terms ora and orapāram have already been discussed. The terms kodha, rāga, taṇhā, māna bhavesu sāra (cp. bhavataṇhā), kopa and vitakka (Sn. 1-7) have not undergone the later systematization and arrangement in groups. Usually the three rāga, dosa and moha occur in one group in the more systematised texts and are called the three akusalamūlāni (fundamental blemishes of character). At some places kodha and upanāha are added to these three, while at others kilesa and kodha and still others māna together with or without diṭthi. Similarly the occurrence of papañca, vitathā, lobha, rāga, dosa and moha in Sn. 8-13 seems to presuppose a time prior to the scholastic classification of the three akusalamūlāni as rāga/lobha, dosa and moha. Besides Sn. 14 seems to associate mūlā akusalā with anusaya.

On the other hand the technical significance of daratha and vanatha (Sn. 15 and 16 respectively), the mention of panca nivarana (Sn. 17), and the emphasis on imam papañcam (Sn. 8) seem to suggest a development in terminology. These are the only references to them, in the form as they are, in this work, though Sn. 514d mentions the nīvaranāni and Sn. 66a the pañcāvaraṇāni. This seemingly developed terminology may probably point out that this sutta presupposes a time when some form of systematization and arrangement has just set in. Another interesting word is itibhavābhavatam (Sn. 6) which is translated by Fausböll as 'reiterated existence' and by Neumann as 'being and non-being'. The explanation in the Comy. (Sn. A 20), sampallivipatti-vuddhīhāni-sassatuccheda-puññapāpavasena iti anekappakāra bhavābhavatā does not make it clear at all. It seems to be somewhat different from bhavābhava which occurs in 8 other places in Sn.6 in the sense of 'reiterated existence' or re-birth. Its meaning in this context is apparently nearer the idea of the fluctuating changes of fortune in the course of re-birth. The term is not strictly technical.

An examination of *Uraga Sutta* in the various aspects of language, metre, style, doctrine and ideology shows that it is a comparatively old *sutta*. The lack of linguistic forms that may be classed as late and the presence of old Vedic and dialectical forms suggest that the *sutta* preserves an old stratum of Pāli. The syntax of the stanzas is also simple. The flexibility of metre also suggests an early date for the *sutta*. The lucid and simple style which is by no means heavy or laboured is characteristic of old poetry. The doctrinal emphasis too speaks of an early date for the *sutta*; and the

^{5.} His translation of the Sutta Nipāta, p. xii (SBE, vol x).

^{6.} Sn. 496b, 776d, 786d, 810b, 877d, 901d. 1,060b and 1,068d.

few technical expressions reflect the "germs of a philosophical system which came to be more logically and consistently systematised" later on. Nothing could be gleaned regarding the social conditions of the time from this sutta; all other available evidence points to an early date.

THE KHAGGAVISĀŅA SUTTA

38

This sutta like the Uraga Sutta derives its name from the simile used in the refrain.

eko care khaggavisānakappo

(let him wander alone like a rhinoceros). The lonely habits of the rhinoceros are symbolic of the solitary wanderings of the ascetic-muni. Rhinoceroses like elephants expelled from the herd are known to lead a solitary life. Yet, there seems to be some disagreement about the title which is often rendered as "The Horn of the Rhinoceros" following the explanation in the Comy., ettha khaggavisānam nāma khaggamiga-singam (khaggavisāna in this context means the horn of the rhinoceros—SnA. 65). This explanation may be accepted on the mere coincidence that both species of the rhinoceros seen in India, viz. the "Indian" and the "Javanese" possess only one horn.8 and that the animal itself is called khagga in Pāli and khadga in Classical Sanskrit. The explanation of khaggavisānakappo at Nd2. 129, yathā khaggassa nāma visāņam ekam hoti adutiyam..(just as a rhinoceros possesses only one horn and not a second...) also justifies the explanation in the Comy. In spite of all this the simile would be considered more apt if the life of the lone-sojourner was compared with the lonely habits of the rhinoceros than with its single horn.

In other places in the Pāli Canon the idea of wandering alone is compared with the movements of animals of solitary habits rather than with parts of their anatomy. The simile employed at J. II. 220 is with reference to an elephant that wanders alone—gajam iva ekacārinam. The simile, eko care mātang-araññe va nāgo (let one wander alone as an elephant in the forest frequented by mātanga-elephants) at M. III. 154, Dh. 329, 330 and J. III. 488 cp. V. 190 too makes it clear. The similes, migo arañnamhi vathā abaddho yenicchakam gacchati gocarāya (as an untethered deer in the forest-glade roams at will for pasture) at Sn. 39ab, and nago va yūthāni vivajjayitvā (as an elephant that forsakes the herds) at Sn. 53a can be compared with that in the refrain. It will be clear from these examples

that the point of contact of the comparison is an action (i.e. the wandering -cariyā) and not an object. Moreover, even in the similes employed in the poem where inanimate objects are compared it is rather some action that stands for comparison than those objects; e.g. vamsākalīro va asajiamāno (like a bamboo-shoot not clinging to anything) at Sn. 38c, samsīnapatto yathā koviļāro (like a koviļāra tree with its scattered- leaves) at Sn. 44b, aggī va daddham anivattamāno (like fire not returning where it had burnt) at Sn. 62c and sanchinnapatto yatha parichatto9 (as a parichatta tree with its leaves cut off) at Sn. 64b.

From these examples it is rather convincing that the point of contact in the simile of the khaggavisāna is not khaggassa visāna (rh.'s horn) nor the cariyā (movement) of the visāna (horn) of the khagga; but the cariyā of the khaggavisāna, the sword-horn (the rhinoceros) itself. It is quite probable that the rhinoceros was known in earlier Palias khaggavisāna that which possesses a sword-like horn¹⁰ and that the term khagga came into usage later on. This is further testified by the few comparatively late passages in which the animal is called khagga viz. Nd2. 129, SnA. 65, JV. 406, 416, VI. 277 and 538. It would therefore, be more correct to interpret the word khaggavisāna as "rhinoceros" and not "rhinoceros' horn".

39

The sutta on the whole deals with a life of solitude. It advocates the cessation from attachment to family life, friends and companions and society in general. The refrain eko care is employed to exhort one to adopt a life of solitude. The idea so colourfully painted in the simile is stressed over and over again in other similes. 11 All the stanzas are connected with the central theme, yet in certain places the connecting thread appears rather thin. A few apparent repetitions and the interruption of the logical trend seem to suggest that the present sutta is an enlarged version of an earlier nucleus. It is of interest here to note that the Khadgavisāņa Gāthā at Mvastu. I. 357, consist of only 12 stanzas. A comparison of the two versions shows that both deal with the same topic and that the BSk. sūtra, though short, discusses the question of solitude as fully as the Pali version with all its digressions and apparent contradictions. While the central idea of the Pāli sutta is the giving up of friends and companions, sons and household life and all forms of samsagga and santhava (ties and attachments), there are occasional references to an "ideal companion" an idea which appears to be an importation to the

12. At Sn. 45, 47 and 58.

B. C. Law, History of Pali Literature, Vol. I, p. 239. Sub voce Encyclopaedia Brittanica.

^{9.} Cp. Mvastu. I. 258, samsīrna-patro (with scattered-leaves).

^{10.} Cp. English, horn-bill, sword-fish, etc. 11. At Sn. 38, 39, 44, 46, 53, 62, 64, 71 and 72.

original sutta. There is also other extraneous matter such as the mention made of certain recluses (paribbājakas?) who are virtually householders (Sn. 43ab), the reference to the theory of mettā at Sn. 42a and the four items of the brahma-vihāras at Sn. 73, a digression on kāma and other upaddavas (hindrances) at Sn. 50-56—though the stanzas conform to the central theme, the repetition of the idea at Sn. 46 in different words at Sn. 57 thus re-introducing the topic of mittam ulāram (a noble companion), and the introduction of a complete list of Buddhist terms at Sn. 60. Besides these, there are numerous repetitions of ideas and wholesale lines and phrases.

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The 12 stanzas in Mvastu, roughly correspond to 7 stanzas in Sn. in the following manner:—St. 1//Sn. 68, st. 2//Sn. 73, st. 3abd//Sn. 35abd, st. 3c//? Sn. st. 4// Sn. 64, st. 5abd// Sn. 62abd, st. 5c// Sn. 64c, stt. 6abd-10abd // Sn. 36abd, (st. 6c//? Sn. 36c. st. 7c//? Sn. 37c, st. 8c// Sn. 41c, st. 9c//? Sn. 37b, st. 10c//? Sn. 36c), st. 11abd// Sn. 37abd, st. 11c// Sn. 35c. and st. 11=st. 12 with jñātī for putram in line c. This table is not quite complete, for there are many words in the two versions which are quite different in their corresponding lines. Stt. 6-10 are mere repetitions of the same idea with a different word in line c. in each stanza. In the 12 stanzas of the Khadgavisāna Gāthā could be seen the theme of the Pāli sutta fully discussed and developed, and likewise the seven corresponding stanzas in the Pāli deal with the topic to a satisfactory degree. The rest of the stanzas express the same ideas in different words dwelling on the theme at length.

There is an apparent contradiction in Sn. 45 when it mentions a nipakam sahāyam as contrasted with na puttam iccheyya kuto sahāyam (Sn. 35c, cp. Sn. 37, 40 and 41). This kalyāna mitta, as other texts would have it, is not to be categorised as a santhava, according to the sutta. The same idea is reflected at Sn. 94, 185, 187, 254 and 255; and Sn. 338 in Rāhula Sutta makes specific mention of kalyāna mitta. It is interesting to note that this topic is discussed at two different places in the sutta (viz. Sn. 45-47 and Sn. 57-58). This shows that either the intervening stanzas were interpolated at a certain stage or Sn. 47 marks the end of the section dealing with mitta and that Sn. 57-58 were added later. (The concluding stanza too makes a casual reference to this type of "noble companion"). The internal evidence of the sutta does not necessarily warrant such a conclusion if the criticism is based on linguistic data and other evidence alone. The sutta differentiates between two kinds of friends those in the household life; e.g. Sn. 40-41 and those in the brahma-cariyā; e.g. Sn. 45, 47, 50. Perhaps it is possible that the "friends in brahma-cariya" is an allusion to the ācariya-antevāsika and upajjhāya-saddhivihārika relation-

ships in monastic life. The insistence on a life devoid of any associates was perhaps felt to be too exacting and therefore a compromise was reached by putting forward the "ideal companion" A. K. Coomaraswamy (H. O. S. Miscellany of Pāli Terms, s.v.) equates kalyanamitta to mahittma or mahatta; but this is not very convincing. The uniformity of the language of these stanzas and the absence of other evidence prevents one from classing some verses to be earlier or later than the rest. It may be only probable that the stanzas in Mvastu. preserve an older version, though both Pali and BSk. may be traced to an older source which is now lost.

It is also noticeable, from the repetitions in stanzas 6-10 and 11-12 (in Mvastu.) that the version there is also an enlargement of an earlier sūtra but it seems, on the whole, to represent an earlier stratum than the Pāli, though the latter will be seen later to be considerably old. The possibility of the BSk. being a condensed version of an earlier sūtra is out of the question for as a rule, no such tendency could be observed in BSk. works, and it is customary for them to contain expanded and enlarged versions of the same sections that are found more briefly in Pali. What is significant here is that the gathas in Mvastu. are far less enlarged than the corresponding sutta in Pali, and besides, the stanzas do not occur in the order in which the corresponding stanzas occur in Sn. A stanza parallel to Sn. 36 occurs at Divy. 294. It runs:

> Samsevamānasya bhavanti snehāh snehānvayam sambhavatīha duhkham! ādīnavam snehagatam viditvā ekaś caret khadgavisānakalpah//

(Attachments arise to him who associates with companions: misery in this world comes into being through attachment. Realizing the evil consequences bound up with attachments let him wander alone as the rhinoceros. The stanza that bears the closest resemblance in Mvastu. is st. 10,

> Samsevamānasya siyāti sneho snehānvayam duhkhamidam prabhoti/ putreșu ādīnavam sammrsanto eko care khadgavişānakalpo//

The occurrence of this stanza in Divy. may equally suggest that both Mvastu. and Divy. have drawn from an original Khaggavisāņa Sutta which is perhaps preserved in entirety in Sn. along with subsequent additions and there is sufficient proof to show that the Pāli version is an enlargement of an earlier existing nucleus. The fact that the Pāli sutta abounds in lyrical

^{13.} I am indebted to Miss I. B. Horner for this observation.

beauty and that its general diction of poetical expression is highly refined, the existence of a super-abundance of similes and the use of illustrative examples (e.g. Sn. 48) are in support of it. The uniformity of the stanzas in language, syntax, style and metre shows that the expansion has taken place very early. Both Nd2 and Ap. (I. 8-13) contain the Khaggavisāna Sutta in full, and this shows that the sutta as is found now was known from comparatively early times.

40

Before examining linguistic and other internal data it would be of some use to see how later writers looked upon this *sutta*. The Comy. and *Nd2* divide it up into four *vaggas*. The division is as follows:—

Comy. Vagga I, Sn. 35-44; II, Sn. 45-54; III, Sn. 55-64; IV, Sn. 65-75.

Nd2. Vagga I, Sn. 35-44; II, Sn. 45-55; III, Sn. 56-65; IV, Sn. 66-75. The Commentator states that all the stanzas were uttered as udāna by Pacceka Buddhas and gives the atthuppatti (context) of each stanza with the stories of these Pacceka Buddhas, some of whom he mentions by name. The 41 stanzas of the Khaggavisāna Sutta are incorporated in the Paccekabuddhāpadāna (Ap. I, 7 ff.). The additional gāthās there (i.e. 1-7 and 50-58) serve as an introduction and a conclusion respectively. An extra stanza is added to the Khaggavisāna Sutta proper, i.e. stanza 8 which differs from 9 (=Sn. 35) only in line c; mettena cittena hitānukampī (= Mvastu. st. 2c). The Comy. of the Apadana too mentions the names of several Pacceka Buddhas, but they are different from those given in SnA. The inclusion of this sutta in Ap. and the fact that it is commented in Nd2 prove that it was known to the compilers of these respective works as it exists to-day. The independent existence of this sutta prior to the compilation of Sn. is seen from Nd2 and Mvastu. which do not place it in a particular group such as the Uraga Vagga.

41

This sutta, like the Uraga Sutta, is undoubtedly meant for the benefit of the muni and belongs to that category of suttas which may be termed the "muni-class". Forty of the forty-one stanzas contain the refrain exhorting one to lead a life of solitude. 14

The language of the sutta, on the whole is rather old, and may be said to belong to stratum of early $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ -Pāli. Old forms, both verbal and nominal, archaic compounds, the vocabulary free from any late words, the simple constructions and very easy syntax suggest that the $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}s$ are rather old. The easy and fluent style and the diction which is definitely poetic add much to the lyrical beauty of the poem. The abundance of similes and the occasional imagery used may lead one to assign a more recent date to the poem, but these two facts merely emphasise the merits of the sutta as a ballad. The absence of anything artificial or laboured removes all doubts of its early date. The external evidence from Nd2 and Ap. is quite overwhelming in favour of a comparatively early date, though Mvastu. seems to suggest that there may have existed a version still earlier than that found at Sn, from which both Sn and Mvastu. developed their respective versions.

The metre of the poem is regular Tristubh with anacrusis¹⁵ and jagatīpādas¹⁶ in a few lines. Neumann (Reden, p. 413) points out tmesis in Sn. 53b, which should normally read, sañjātapadumīkhandho uļāro. Tmesis is a very old poetical device which is rather frequent even in the Rgveda.

The sutta contains many linguistic forms that may be classified as old. There are three old ppr. forms in -am, old absolutives as chetvana Sn. 44c, bhetvā Sn. 62b, agent nouns like sahitā Sn. 42c and sammasitā Sn. 69c, many historical absolutives ending in -va, e.g. aññāva, vinevva, Sn. 58c, abhibhuyya, Sn. 45c, etc., optative 3rd singulars in -etha, e.g. labhetha, Sn. 45a, 46a, etc. (usually confined to the poetic language), probable dialectical forms as kammāra- Sn. 48b, suhajje Sn. 37a, and poetical forms as seritam Sn. 39c, 40c, vaco (Vedic) Sn. 54c, rakkhitamānasāno Sn. 63b, upekham Sn. 67c, 73a, apekhā Sn. 38b, and many elements which can be traced to Vedic, e.g. atho, etc. Some of the numerous cpds. used in the sutta seem to have become stereotyped already. Metrical lengthening is to be seen at Sn. 38c vamsākalīro, Sn. 49a sahā, Sn. 61c mutīmā and Sn. 70b Satīmā. Dukha is found for dukkha at Sn. 67a probably on the analogy of sukha or for purposes of metre. Similarly atthanam and karanatthava are contracted to atthana Sn. 54a and karanattha Sn. 75a respectively. Judging from these instances the *sutta* as a whole bears a stamp of antiquity.

A few linguistic forms and other peculiarities of interest are:—Khaggavisāṇakappo Sn. 35d-44d and 46d-75d (already discussed), vide Nd2. 129 and SnA. 65. This sutta abounds in cpds; some of them like yenicchakaṃ Sn. 39b, itarītarena Sn. 42b, yathābhirantaṃ Sn. 53c, analaṃkaritvā Sn. 59b, are of special interest here as they occur in the prose canonical idiom

16. ibid. Sn. 47a, 50a, 60ab, 66a and 70c.

^{14.} Sn. 45 which contains no refrain is to be found at Vin. I, 350, M. III, 154, Dh. 328, 329, J. III, 488 and Dh.A. I, 52 along with Sn. 46. In the above instances the line eko care mātaṅgaraññe va nāgo (vide 1) is to be seen in place of the usual refrain. It is probable that the simile with the elephant was earlier than that with the rhinoceros whose solitary habits were not so well-known as those of the elephant. It is significant that in the older 'lists' of wild animals khagga is not mentioned. (J.V. 416 is obviously late). In view of the above facts it is highly probable that Sn. 45 and 46 were importations to this sutta and that the line d of Sn. 46 was changed to suit the sutta.

^{15.} Vide Helmer Smith, SnA. 638. He points out anacrusis in Sn. 35b, 40c, 41c, 45c, 59b, 63c, 68c, 69c, and 71c.

as well. Sneho Sn. 36a cp. 36c. Both sneha and sineha occur in this sutta: see sinehadosam at Sn. 66c. There is no hard and fast rule regarding the consonantal group sn- in poetry, though prose generally prefers the forms with svarabhakti; (also vide Geiger, §52). Statistics would throw hardly any light on this point, for the use of forms with or without svarabhakti is mainly governed by metrical exigencies and poetic idiosyncrasies. Pahoti Sn. 36b is used in both prose and verse in the sense of "arise" though pabhavati is restricted to poetry (s.v., P.T.S.). Pekkhamāno Sn. 36c, etc. There are 18 medial ppr. forms in-māna in this sutta. Of the 350 ppr. forms in Sn. as many as 139 are medials, 107 of which end in -māna. The fact that this form is used in all periods of Pāli does not preclude the possibilities of the stanzas being old when other corroborative evidence is taken into account. Suhajje Sn. 37a (cp. kosajja) appears to be a dialectical word. The Pāli word parallel to Sk. suhrd is suhada, but this form probably was an analogical derivation from the abstract sau-hrd-va>sohajja. The other possibility is that sohajja the secondary form from suhada became suhajja by the weakening of the vowel o; o>u cp. Sk. asau>Māgadhī aso>P. asu also Gen. pl. gunnam (Sk. gonam) and Sk. sadyah>P. sajju. Sahitā Sn. 42c (cp. sammasitā Sn. (69c). There are 21 such historical agent nouns in Sn. which should all be ascribed to an early stratum in Pali though canonical and later prose also contains them. Atho Sn. 43b, atho is formed from the copulative (and adverbial) particle atha and the enclitic u, and can be traced back to the later hymns of the Rgveda and the Sathapatha Brāhmana¹⁷. This compound particle appears to be restricted to poetry and occurs no less than 25 times in Sn. alone. Saddhimcaram Sn. 45b, 46b, saddhim —cara (the adjectival suffix from \sqrt{car}) cp. dada in paññādada Kh. VIII 10 or kāmadada Pv. II, 9.1. As the cpd. is formed from the indeclinable saddhim and it retains the nasal as in analamkaritvā Sn. 59b, rattimdivam Sn. 507c, 114b it is of special interest. Kammāra Sn. 48a is a Prakritism used in all stages of the language, in the specialised meaning of "smith". Sk. karma-kāra>P. Itamma-kāra> 'kamma-āra (cp. ajja-utta for uryaputra)>P. kammāra; cp. Kṛṣīnagara>P. Kusinārā. Phassaye Sn. 54b is probably a dialectical form. The root sprs is treated as a verb in class X, perhaps on the analogy of forms like cintage. The direct historical forms should be phasse and phuse. Rakkhitamānasāno Sn. 63b. nom. sg. is formed by adding the adjectival six. -na to mānasa the secondary form of manas. This too is a pure poetic form.

42

The doctrinal import of this sutta has already been touched upon. It has been emphasised earlier that the quest of the secluded life pertains to

17. Vide Macdonell, Vedic Grammar for Students, pp. 214-215.

the earliest stage of Buddhism and sheds much light on the life of the hermits (munayo). A noticeable development in doctrine in the sutta is the concept of a noble companion (39). It has been pointed out above that the Khadgavisāna Gāthā in Mvastu. make no mention of this type of companion. If the version in Mvastu, is considered as representing an earlier form of this sutta, perhaps a form nearer the nucleus out of which the present long sutta has developed, it may be justifiable to infer that this concept is a later accretion. On the other hand, it is more probable that the idea of a kalyāṇa-mitta developed in the Theravāda School before the time of composition of the Pali Khaggavisana Sutta. The references to kalyāna-mitta (virtuous companion) at Sn. 338a, mittasampadam (good companionship) at Kh. VIII, 14, sahāya-sampadam at Sn. 47a, etc. (s.v., P.T.S. for more references) do not make it clear whether the idea developed early or not, but the idea of the kalyāṇa-mitta as the spiritual advisor or guide appears frequently in younger contexts (s.v., P.T.S.). The term parallel to the earlier concept in Buddhism is to be found in sādhusanga of the epics (Mbh.). It is not in the latter developed meaning that these terms occur in this sutta. Although this idea is rather contradictory to that of ekacariyā it cannot be considered as late. The uniformity in language and metre makes the possibilities of a wholesale interpolation improbable. The lack of consistency in the logical trend of the sutta may indicate that the verses had existed earlier in some unsettled order and that the present order is due to the efforts of a monastic editor.

Another important concept that is taken for granted is mettā. It is alluded to at Sn. 42a, Cātuddiso appațigho ca hoti. (He has no conflicts from the four quarters), and is mentioned later on in the sutta at Sn. 73 along with upe(k)khā, karunā, vimutti and muditā. The idea of mettā (friendliness, amity) is a central concept in Buddhism, both early and late. Four of the five items mentioned at Sn. 73 came later to be classified as the brahmavihāras. Besides the fact that no specific mention of the brahmavihāras is made, the four items which constitute it do not occur here in their classified order; i.e. mettā, karunā, muditā and upekkhā. There is no doubt whatsoever that these concepts go back to the earliest phase of Buddhism and perhaps Mrs. Rhys Davids is right when she speaks of brahmavihāra as a later term for these four items, 18 though the name itself is not late and is applied to mettā alone at Sn. 151d. This sutta thus reflects a time prior to these concepts being labelled as brahmavihāras.

The expression aññāya atthāni at Sn. 58c (having known the atthas) demands attention. The explanation at Nd2, 85, atta'ttha, para'ttha, ubhaya'ttha, diṭṭhadhamma'ttha, samparāyika'ttha and parama'ttha (own

^{18.} Mrs. Rhys Davids, Outlines of Buddhism, pp 32 ff. and What was the Original Gospel in Buddhism? pp. 92 ff.

welfare, others' welfare, welfare of both, welfare in this world, welfare after-death and highest welfare), merely suggests the various implications. SnA. 111 agrees with this explanation. It is quite probable that attha here meant not only paramattha—the summum bonum in Buddhism, but embraces a still wider meaning as suggested by the commentaries and is probably connected with the attha suggested earlier in connection with the Atthaka Vagga (PBR 1, 3, p. 143).

All the other terms and topics of doctrinal import in the *sutta* are to be met with in other Pāli works, both old and young, and therefore demand no particular attention. Worldly attachments and ties (Sn. 35 ff.), lustful tendencies (Sn. 50), materialistic leanings (Sn. 54), and perverse views (Sn. 55), are denounced. The five obstacles to progress (mentioned by number only) are to be abandoned (Sn. 66) and $upe(k)kh\bar{a}$ is to be developed (Sn. 67). The positive side of the life of a muni discussed in Sn. 65-74 necessitates the mention of many terms which have acquired a technical significance. The complete list of instructions at Sn. 69 may seem to appear rather late on account of the fact that many important concepts are heaped together, but the haphazard manner in which the items occur does not show any sign of lateness. Moreover, all the topics mentioned there are quite consistent with the general theme of the sutta as well as the life of the early hermits. Rāga, dosa and moha which are mentioned at Sn. 74a suggest that they have almost reached the stage of being classified into the stereotyped group of the three akusalamūlāni; but the term as such does not occur here. Generally speaking, the sutta on doctrinal evidence represents an early phase of Buddhism.

43

Other internal evidence consists of social conditions reflected in the sutta and other casual references. As far as social conditions go not many data can be gathered, as the sutta paints a picture of the life of recluses only. The reference made to some (eke) discontented pabbajitas at Sn. 43 may be an allusion to a contemporary sect or class. It is difficult to say who these recluses were from the scanty evidence available. The stanza seems to bear a faint connection with Sn. 45ab, which can be considered as referring to the philosophy of such a sect. Yet, it is not possible to establish a definite link between the two, as sāmayikam vimuttim may not refer to any particular view, but to temporal joys. ¹⁹ It is only

probable that these two stanzas refer to a sect of materialists (Cārvākas). There are numerous references to materialists and their doctrines in the Nikāyas (Sāmaññaphala Sutta, etc.), and according to Rhys Davids, they must have preceded Buddhism as early Buddhist literature mentions them.²⁰

The line Sn. 75b, nikkāraṇā dullabhā ajja mittā (friends without a motive are rare today) seems to refer to the time of composition of the sutta. This by itself is of no great significance, for human nature has been the same through the ages. Along with this may be compared Th. I, 949-980 where Phussa prophesies that the future of the Sangha would be gloomy. The passage is a condemnation of the white-robed ascetics, and shows the rivalry between the ascetics and the monks. The prophecy actually alludes to the time of compilation of these gāthās. In the Sutta Nipāta the significant point is the mention of the word ajja, though it does not in any way help to determine the date of the sutta.

44

Taking all the evidence into consideration an early date may be assigned to the *sutta*. Linguistically, it is seen to preserve an early stratum of Pāli. Doctrinally, it represents an early phase of Buddhism, tinged with the germs of some important tenets of that phase of Buddhism which came to be termed Theravāda. External evidence within the Pāli Canon itself suggests an early date for all the stanzas of the *sutta*, but evidence from *Mvastu*. and *Divy*. seem to indicate that the Pāli *sutta* was an enlargement of an earlier nucleus. Metre shows that all the stanzas in the poem should belong to the same period if not to one author. The style too is uniform throughout the *sutta*.

THE MUNI SUTTA

45

The Muni Sutta portrays certain characteristics of the muni—the sage. The poem agrees in theme with the Uraga and Khaggavisāna Suttas. These three suttas together with Moneyya Sutta (i.e. Nālaka excluding its vatthugāthā) can be considered as the proper "Muni—ballads", though there is constant mention of the attributes of the muni in the greater part of the Sabhiya Sutta and many suttas of the Atthaka Vagga such as Jarā, Tissametteyya and Māgandiya. It has already been noted that the Uraga Sutta resembles this sutta in many respects. While the Uraga Sutta describes the ideal bhikkhu, the Muni Sutta gives a descriptive definition

^{19.} Vide SnA. 105, sāmayikam vimuttin ti lokiyasamāpattim, sā hi appitappitasamaye eva paccanīkehi vimuccanato sāmayikā vimuttī ti vuccati (cp. PtsA III, 552 ff.)—Temporal emancipation means worldly attainments. It is called temporal emancipation because whenever one indulges (in these pleasures, cp. Sn. 54b) one is emancipated from what is unpleasant.

^{20.} Rhys Davids, American Lectures, p. 24.

of the muni. Generally speaking, there appears no fundamental difference between the muni and the bhikkhu in early Buddhism, and the terms are interchangeable, except when muni specifically refers to the Buddha. The qualities attributed to the muni are often associated with the bhikkhu, and sometimes with brāhmana, khattiva, vedagu and sottiva in a strict Buddhist sense.²¹ Although bhikkhu and muni are virtually synonymous there seems to be a subtle difference between the two. While renunciation, pabbajjā (becoming a religious mendicant), detachment and ekacariyā (life of solitude) are emphasised of the bhikkhu, the muni is described as a person who plays a more important rôle. This is quite evident from his description in the Muni and Moneyva Suttas, and the type of epithets used about him. In addition to the possession of all the characteristics of the bhikkhu, there appears something nobler and more positive about him than about the bhikkhu. He is a more evolved being (bhāvitatta) who has reached spiritual attainments and instructs others as well. The term muni in Sn. is used in a much wider meaning than bhikkhu in Th. 1.

As regards the epithets, the muni is called a mahesi (Sn. 208^d) and is described as tādī (Sn. 219b), vatatta (Sn. 216b), saññatatta (Sn. 216a) and thitatta (Sn. 215^a). Besides the eight references²² where Buddha is called mahesi, the true brāhmana (in the strict Buddhist sense) is spoken of as mahesi at Sn. 646, also the khināsava is referred to as a mahesi at Sn. 82^a and 481^a, though the allusion is to the Buddha. The epithet tādī is rather puzzling as it cannot be easily differentiated from tādī (Sk. tādṛk also P. tādiso) the demonstrative adjective. Yet, there are sufficient instances in Sn, itself where $t\bar{a}d\bar{i}$ is clearly used in the pregnant sense of ecce homo. The muni is ubhaveneva tādī at Sn. 712° (unchanged under both circumstances) in the Nāļaka Sutta. Paramatthaka speaks of the bhikkhu as, pāramgato na pacceti tādī (gone over yonder such—a steadfast one—is he who returns not;—Sn. 803^d). The Buddha is called asitam and tādim at Sn. 957a, cp. Sn. 219c asitam anāsavam). The maggajina is called tādī at Sn. 86^d in the Cunda Sutta. The brāhmana, khettajina (cp. Sk. ksetrajña), vedagu and sottiva--all of them in a Buddhist sense-are called tādī in the Sabhiya Sutta (Sn. 519-532). Another attribute of the muni-yatatta (self restrained)—is repeated at Sn. 723° in the Moneyya Sutta. Homeless recluses are called yatattā at Sn. 490b. It is practically the same idea conveyed by the term saññatatta (self-subdued). The brahmins of old are referred to as saññatattā at Sn. 284b (Brāhmanadhammika Sutta), and susaññatattā occurs at Sn. 464b (Sundarikabhāradvāja Sutta). The muni is known to be thitatta (steadfast), so also is the virtuous monk described in the Kimsīla Sutta (Sn. 328d) the bhikkhu who renounces the world in

the proper manner (Sn. 370°) and the good brāhmana (Sn. 519b). Further, it is used as an attribute of the Tathagata at Sn. 477. The muni is also called asitam and anāsavam (independent and free from the banes). The Buddha is described as asito at Sn. 251d and 957d. The true brāhmana (brahmā in the text) is called asito at Sn. 519d. Again the monk who has drawn out the dart is described as asito at Sn. 593a and so is the muni in the Moneyva Sutta. The manava Dhotaka begs for instruction so that he may lead a life of peace and independence; (idheva santo asito carevvam $-Sn 1065^{b}$).

It is evident that these standard epithets of the muni definitely speak of the positive side of his life. Many of these terms are not employed to describe the bhikkhu though he may possess the qualities which these epithets attribute to the muni. There is some implied superiority of the muni over the bhikkhu though the ideal of the bhikkhu is in no way to be understood as falling short of that of the muni.

There are various other attributes of the muni enumerated in the sutta. He has no fixed abode and he is free from any acquaintanceship (Sn. 207). He has eradicated all sin; and is the lonely wanderer (cp. Sn. 35-75) who has visioned the state of peace (Sn. 208). He sees the ultimate destruction of birth, leaves reasoning behind and is under no limitations of time and space (Sn. 209). He is free from covetousness and has reached the Beyond—pāra—(Sn. 210). He is sabbābhibhu—one who overcomes every obstacle and is superior to all others;—he has perfect knowledge and is unsmeared by the worldly phenomena and is emancipated. (These are the attributes of the Bhagava mentioned at M. 1, 171 S. II. 284, Vin. I. 8 and Dh. 353)—(Sn. 211). He is wise and composed, and is free from the mental obsessions; he delights in meditation, wanders alone and leads others (Sn. 212-213). He is firm and straight, discerning, free from lust and he shrinks from sin. His senses are serene and he is endowed with propriety of speech (Sn. 214-215). He is self-restrained and self-subdued (Sn. 216). He knows the world and sees the highest attha (well-being). He has crossed the ogha (flood) and the samudda (ocean), has cut off all knots, has nothing to lean on and is steadfast.

The sutta in every respect is Buddhistic and the terms and values in it bear ample testimony to that effect. The simple allegory taken from the uprooting of a tree or of not sowing the seed (of tanhā) developed to a considerable extent in Sn. 208-209, the shunning of resting places of the mind (nivesanāni)—Sn. 210, cp. also Atthaka Vagga, remaining unsullied by worldly phenomena, and such other central concepts of early Buddhism. prove that the sutta contains very early Buddhist sayings and there is much evidence to show that the subject-matter of this sutta is very old. The

See Sabhiya Sutta Sn. 111, 6.
 Sn. 176d, 177d, 915b, 1054a, 1057a, 1061b, 1067b, and 1083a.

theme of the *sutta* (as well as that of many other poems of *Sn.*) is closely connected with the yogic ideal. The *muni* chooses with stoic indifference the middle way between self-mortification and attachment to worldly enjoyment. This ideal as current in pre-Asokan times coincides with the yogic ideal promulgated in the *Gitā* (*Bhg. II-VI. cp. Bhg. II*, 56; II, 69; V, 6; V, 28; VI, 3, etc., where the *muni* is mentioned in similar words).

46

The stanzas themselves need a close examination before the internal, external and indirect evidence is taken up for discussion. A simple analysis of the *sutta* shows that its stanzas fall into three groups; *viz.*—

Group I. Sn. 207-210, Group II. Sn. 211-219 and Group III. Sn. 220-221.

Group I.—The four opening stanzas seem to form an independent unit —a short poem by itself. Unlike the nine stanzas that follow, these verses do not contain the refrain (tam vā pi dhīrā munim vedayanti); but it is quite significant that the word muni occurs at least once in every stanza of the whole sutta. Sn. 207 furnishes the introduction to the independent unit as well as to the whole poem. A noteworthy feature of this stanza is that it is in Anustubh śloka whereas the rest of the poem is in Tristubh. The stanza itself cannot, on this account, be brushed aside as a late introductory verse, for it was obviously known to have belonged to the Muni Sutta at least some time prior to the compilation of the Milindapañha.23 The stanza itself breathes the same tone as the opening verses of the Khaggavisāņa Sutta—cp. etam bhayam santhave pekkhamāno, Sn. 37a. Gāme akubbam muni santhavāni at Sn. 844^b is also reminiscent of the opening pāda. The same idea is expanded at Dh. 212-216, viz.—Dh. 212 Piyato jāyatī soko piyato jāyatī bhayam (from what is pleasant arise grief and fear) -, Dh. 213 pemato.. (from affection..), Dh. 214 rativā.. (from lust..), Dh. 215 kāmato. (from sense-pleasures..) and Dh. 216 tanhāya. (from avarice...). All these causes of suffering or sorrow seem to be embraced by the term santhava, cp. also J. IV. 312.

The next stanza (Sn. 208) introduces the familiar Buddhist allegory (already referred to) in which santhava (Comy. tanhā) is the tree that has to be uprooted. What has arisen has to be annihilated (eradicated), it should not be allowed to grow anew (lit. not replanted), and it should not be allowed to grow up when it has sprung. This allegory is further

worked out in the next stanza (Sn. 209). The vatthūni—lit. fields or bases have to be reckoned, and the seed (Comy. abhisankhāraviñnāna— "storing intellect'') has to be destroyed (Comy. himsitvā, vadhitvā—Sk. pramārya from \sqrt{mr} . $mrn\bar{a}ti$ —and it is not to be watered with sineha (desire). Sn. 210 forms the conclusion of this independent unit. Judging by the ideas in them these four stanzas, taken by themselves, appear to be very old. This is further strengthened by the Commentator's testimony. He says that the uppatti (origin) of the whole sutta is not the same (Sn.A. 254). He gives the same uppatti for these four stanzas, but gives separate uppattis for each succeeding stanza. The Commentator's introduction seems rather strained and reports a somewhat incredible incident found also at A. III. 67-69 (Mātāputtika Sutta // o A. III. 559). This tradition though as late as cc. 5th century A.C. cannot be totally ignored, as it is supported by the Anguttara Nikāya. On the other hand even if there is no connection between the incident narrated in Sn.A. 254 ff. and these four stanzas, the very fact of the existence of the strong tradition that these four stanzas were found together, the internal evidence of the subject matter, and the recurrence of the opening stanza four times in Milp. attest to their great antiquity.

Group II.—The refrain is found in all these stanzas and all of them are uniform except Sn. 213 which contains seven pādas instead of four. The three additional pādas are the same as Sn. 71abc in the Khaggavisāna Sutta. The influence of the Khaggavisāna Sutta is felt in ekam carantam munim appamattam at Sn. 213^a and, tam āhu ekam muninam carantam at Sn. 208^c, besides the repeated pādas Sn. 213^{cde}. The four lines would have been complete and the stanza would have passed without special notice, but for these additional pādas which in all probability were interpolated later. It is very unlikely that the whole stanza was an interpolation, although the ideas contained in it are closely related to the Khaggavisāna Sutta. Similarly Sn. 211 cannot be considered as an interpolation though the first three pādas occur elsewhere in connection with the Buddha's meeting with the ājīvaka Upaka.24 In all these instances these words are put into the mouth of the Bhagavā making him utter a boastful statement, which is quite contrary to his usual reticence about himself. It is quite probable that this was the original occurrence of these lines and that other texts may have drawn upon this stanza in reporting the incident between the Buddha and the mendicant Upaka. The repetition of the simile, tasaram va ujjum (like a shuttle that is straight) at Sn. 464b and 497b does not indicate that the idea has been borrowed in any of these instances, but that it was the common property of the poetical language.

^{23.} Milp.385 quotes this stanza thus:—Bhāsitam-p'ctaṃ-mahārāja Bhagavatā devā-tidevena Suttanipāte, and quotes Sn. 207. The stanza is the topic of a pañha at Milp. 212 ff. and is quoted several times there.

^{24.} Vide Ariyapariyesana Sutta, Vinaya Introduction, etc.

These nine stanzas form, as it were, the body of the *Muni Sutta*. They constitute the ballad proper, with the emphasis on the *muni* clearly brought out by the refrain and the similes at Sn. 213^{cde} , 214^a and 215^a . These stanzas form a homogeneous unit, just as the first four stanzas form a unit by themselves. The chief ideas of this section are seen to occur again in other ballads of Sn. as well as in other metrical works. $P\bar{a}das$ and lines of many stanzas are also repeated in other metrical works.

According to Buddhaghosa the 11 stanzas beginning with Sn. 211 were uttered on various occasions by the Buddha and these sayings were gathered from various isolated instances and knitted together into a composite sutta. The uppattīs (origins) given by him are:—

Sn. 211—uttered on the occasion of Buddha's meeting the ājīvaka Upaka. (SnA. 258) cp. Comy. on Dh. 353. Sn. 212-uttered about Khadirāvaniya Revata. (Sn.A. 261) cp. Comy. on Dh. 98 and Dh. 412, Sn. 213—preached to Suddhodana. (SnA. 262). Sn. 214—uttered after Ciñcāmāṇavikā's attempt to malign the Buddha. (SnA. 263) cp. Comy. on Dh. 176 and Sn. 780. Sn. 215—preached to the girl who was inspired by the straightness of the movement of the shuttle. (SnA. 265). Sn. 216—preached on the occasion of the weaver girl's solution of the Buddha's riddle. (SnA. 266) cp. Comy. on Dh. 174. Sn. 217—preached to the Pañcaggadāyaka-brāhmaņa. (SnA. 270) cp. Comy. on Dh. 367. Sn. 218—preached to the monks, announcing the attainment of arahatship of a monk who had fluctuated four times between home and homelessness. (SnA. 272). Sn. 219—preached to the monks, announcing Nanda's attainment of arahatship. (SnA. 273) cp. Comy. on Dh. 15. Sn. 220 preached to the monks, announcing the arahatship of a monk who was alleged to have aided a hunter. (SnA. 275). Sn. 221—preached on the occasion when the Sakiyas argued that a Sotāpanna, even if he is a householder, should be honoured by another who reaches that stage subsequent to him. (Sn.A. 276).

It is not at all probable that these stanzas were "independent utterances" made on "various occasions" as Bdhgh. says. The coherence of thought and the inter-dependence between the succeeding verses and those preceding, indicate to what extent these stanzas are connected with one another. In all probability these nine stanzas (and perhaps Sn. 207-210) were the work of a single poet though it is very doubtful whether the two concluding stanzas too belonged to him. The significance of the diversity of the uppattis of these stanzas given by Bdhgh. is that the verses themselves were so well-known that there were separate stories appended to them by Commentarial tradition. This perhaps speaks of the popularity that these verses enjoyed.

25. Vide E. M. Hare: Woven Cadences, p. 190.

themselves as (a) they contain no refrain (b) point out the difference between the householder and the muni. Although these two stanzas are similar to the rest of the poem in language, metre and style, the change of values and the contrast made between the householder and the muni (emphasising the latter's superiority in the simile at Sn. 221^{ab}) are indicative of an effort made by a monastic editor to usher in to this poem of lofty theme and ideals, an idea of comparative insignificance. Their position as the last two stanzas of the final sutta (of the vagga) suggests that they may as well have been intended to form the very conclusion of the whole vagga. In view of their decidedly late characteristics and the indirect evidence from the position of the sutta it is clear that these two stanzas were added when the sutta was re-edited before its inclusion in Sutta Nipāta.²⁶

47

The language of the sutta is old and all the stanzas are composed in the archaic poetic dialect often called "gāthā-Pāli". There are many linguistic forms in the sutta that belong to an early stratum of Pāli, and forms which may be classed as late are totally absent. The usual historical verbal forms like Optative 3 sg. P. pada in-e, A. pada in-etha, the historical sibilant Aorist (addakkhi, Sn. 208b), absolutives in -ya (7 of them), old present participles in—am (anikāmayam Sn. 210b), and old infinitives (like thutum Sn. 217°) as well as nominal forms such as rajo (Sn. 207b), muninam (Sn. 208c), gedha (Sn. 210c), and ubho (Sn. 220a), dialectal or local forms such as anuppavecche (Sn. 208b, 209b) and ujjum (Sn.215a), and historical particles like ve (Sn. 207d; Vedic vai) etc. show that the language of the sutta is old. The linguistic forms of interest in this sutta are:-ropayeyya, Sn. 208a; The causative is formed after verbs of class X, and -eyy- is added. This is a pure Pāli form. Assa, Sn. 208b; This should be interpreted as a dative, as in Comy. i.e., as assa jāyantassa with elipsis—(SnA. 256). The two lines would then read:—Yo jātam ucchijja, jāyantam na ropayeyya, assa (jāyantassa) nānuppavecche. Anuppavecche, Sn. 208b, 209b. (Comy. anuppaveseyya, samodhāneyya should permit entry or fulfilment). There are three possible explanations to this curious form:—1-(Trenckner). \sqrt{yam} yaccha>*yeccha->vecchacp. y > v in $\bar{a}yudha > \bar{a}vudha$ etc. (vide Geiger, §46), and the vowel change

^{26.} The composite character of the *Muni Sutta* may suggest the existence of different recensions before it took its final shape in Sn. At present it is not possible to decide to what recension of it the title $Muni-g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ was applicable. (The possibility of the name referring to all poems in praise of the *muni*-ideal as suggested by Max Walleser, also needs consideration). The inclusion of the *sutta* in Sn is relatively late as compared with the date of its composition.

-a->-c- cp. $sa-yath\bar{a}>seyyath\bar{a}$, $(pavekkhe\ etc.)\ 2-\sqrt{vi\dot{s}}>$ Caus. $ve\dot{s}yet$ (Opt.)>vesse->-cche. cp. -ts->-ss- //-cch- (Sk. utsanga. P. ussanga //, ucchanga). 27 (If it could be established that $-\dot{s}->-cch$, just as $\dot{s}->ch$ (initially) as in chakana, chava, $ch\bar{a}pa$ or $chepp\bar{a}$, the form might as well be derived from opt. of $\sqrt{vi\dot{s}}$, i.e. * $ve\dot{s}yet$ on the analogy of class IV verbs). 3-The optative of the future base of $\sqrt{vi\dot{s}}$ i.e. *vek->*vekkhe (// E. Pkr.) or *vecche (// to W. Pkr.) would be the same as this form. 28 Thambhorriva, Sn. 214^a ; This is an inorganic sandhi with the artificial replacement of the historical-h which, with the preceding a i.e. -ah, has already become -o; iva is retained as in Sk. Ubho, Sn, 220^a ; <ubhau, the Vedic dual. It is a historical form. Ujjum, Sn. 215^a ; dialectal or Prākritic rju>*i/u-rju (with epenthesis) >ujju. Nālaṃ thutum, Sn. 217^c ; the old construction with alam and the infinitive; Sk. stautum>*thotum>P. thutum.

Metre.—The difference in metre between the opening stanza and the rest of the poem has already been commented on. This difference of metre in the introductory verse is quite similar to that in the opening verse in Kimsīla Sutta. It was probably on verses like these that the practice of prefacing suttas with vatthugāthā was based. The opening stanza is a regular Anustubh śloka with an odd quarter in line c. The rest of the poem is in Tristubh metre with Jagatī pādas at Sn. 212°, 214° 218°, 219° and 220°-221°d. The ceasura after the 7th syllable is not reckoned in Sn. 210° and 221° (Jagatī). There are two difficult pādas (Sn. 214° and 215°) and Helmer Smith (Sn.A. 639) suggests yogāhane and kammahi for yo ogahane and kammehi respectively. There is metrical lengthening in santhavāto (Sn. 207a), munī (Sn. 209c, 210c, 216b, and 220d. v.l. muni.) nâyūhatī (Sn. 210^d v.l. -i), anupalittam (Sn. 211^b v.l. -u-) and satīmam (Sn. 212b). Both forms gihi (Sn. 220a v.l. -i) and gihī (Sn. 220c and 221c v.l. -i) occur. Though metre, as a rule, is no sound criterion, the old metres employed in this sutta further support other evidence which shows that the poem is old.

Style—There is nothing extraordinary as regards the style of the sutta. Throughout the poem the diction of the stanzas is purely poetic, and figurative speech is freely used, e.g. Sn. 209^d , 219^{bc} etc. Simile and metaphor play an important part. In addition to the popular similes mentioned already there is a simile at Sn. 221^{ab} . The allegory at Sn. 208-209 also enhances the poetic effect. E. M. Hare (p. 218) considers that $pam\bar{a}ya$ (Sn. 209^a) is a ślesa (pun) i.e. from $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$ and \sqrt{mr} . There are a few instances of alliteration (Sn. 211) and assonance (Sn. 219^b —atitariya $l\bar{a}dim$). These poetical devices which are not too frequently

28. Vide Geiger, § 152 note 3.

employed in the *sutta* do not in, any way mar the style as in late artificial poetry. The refrain in *Sn.* 211-219, the popular similes used, and the perfect rhythm and cadence, all point to a literary style which is essentially that of the ballad, and therefore popular.

Doctrinal Developments—Besides the epithets used for the muni. which have definite values and an underlying technical significance there are a few terms in the sutta which show a transition from the general meaning to a more restricted connotation indicating a gradual development in doctrine. The word santhava (Sn. 207^a) implies not only acquaintances but also all forms of ties, attachments and worldly bonds arising out of the association with them (cp. Khaggavisāna Sutta). The words vatthūni, bījam and sineham, though allegorically used have a faint technical significance; and these words in course of time came to be looked upon as synonyms for the various objects they stood for. This process is easily discernible, in the case of sineha on account of the semantic development of the word (sineha=liquid and affection), and became most pronounced in the Commentarial epoch. Neumann²⁹ suggests that takkam and sankham at Sn. 209d were references to popular philosophical systems Tārkvam and Sānkhvam. It is not at all likely that takka and sankha were references to any definite philosophical system so much as to any speculative doctrine which professed to achieve salvation by way of knowledge—*iñana* as opposed to *voga*. 30 Sankham cannot be an allusion to the philosophical system known as Sankhya originated by Kapila. before Buddhism, but developed centuries later. It has been rightly pointed out by Neumann (ibid) that the muni seeks no resting place as the vogi as stated at Mbh. Sāntiparvan 302, pratyaksahetavo yogāh, sānkhyāh śāstravinicayāh. The phrase sankham na upeti, however, is intrinsically connected with na sankham gacchati (does not enter the category of, or, is not reckoned as) occurring often in canonical Pali. The only point worth investigating here is to what category (lit. number) the muni does not belong. The explanation of this phrase in the Comy. (SnA. 257) that the muni does not enter the category of "a divine being or an(ordinary) man" or even of "a person of lustful temperament or of malicious temperament" sheds some light. In short, the idea implied is that the muni is beyond worldly limitations—an idea quite in harmony with the conception of a perfect muni.

The term **nivesana** (Sn. 210^a) as 'a resting place for the mind, a dogma' is a word adapted by early Buddhism giving it a special meaning. It has no special doctrinal significance, apart from the fact that this specialised

^{27.} Vide Müller; Pali Grammar, p. 120.

^{29.} Dic Reden Gotamo Buddhos, p. 437.

^{30.} Vide Franklin Edgerton: "Samkhya and Yoga in the Epics"—American Journal of Philology, 1924.

meaning was attached to it from very early times. The idea of being free from such nivesanāni (or-nivesā 785^a) occurs also at $Sn.~470^{ab}$, 801^{c} , 846^{d} , and $1055.^{c}$ Sn.~785 describes the nature of dogmatic beliefs. The term pāra and the idea of 'going beyond' ($p\bar{a}ra+\sqrt{gam}$)— $Sn.~210^{d}$ have been discussed in the introduction to the $P\bar{a}r\bar{a}yana~Vagga.^{31}$ The words ogha and samudda $Sn.~219^{b}$ are used to signify the ills of the world in much the same way as vatthūni, bījāni and sineha, but ogha seems to have already acquired a technical significance as seen from its occurrences in $Sn.^{32}$

The doctrinal emphasis of this *sutta* is on the conduct of the *muni*. This itself shows that the *sutta* reflects an early period. Most of the terminology of the *sutta*, apart from the basic concepts such as *sanga*, *santhava*, etc. is not fixed. The terms used in the allegory of the seed and that of reaching the further shore of the *samudda* (ocean) are seen gradually to acquire a technical significance. This *sutta* furnishes a great deal of data for the development of early Buddhist terminology. All the available evidence from doctrinal grounds too shows that the *sutta* appears early.

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External evidence.—References made to the Muni Sutta in other works show that the sutta was known before the compilation of these respective works. The Muni-gāthā are mentioned as one of the sections recited by Śrona Kotikarna at Divv. 20, and by the merchants at Divv. 35. The Vinava of the Mūlasarvâstivādins and the Tibetan Dulva include the Munigāthā among the sections recited by Śrona.33 As Rhys Davids34 has pointed out, by Muni-gāthā was meant the Muni Sutta. In one of the places where Milp. (i.e. p. 385) quotes the opening stanza of the Muni Sutta (i.e. Sn. 207) the name of the sutta itself is not mentioned, though reference is made to the Sutta Nipāta, (see note 6). Usually the author of Milp. refers to the whole work rather than to a particular sutta when he makes his quotations; e.g. Samyuttanikāyavare, Suttanipāte, etc. Altogether he makes five references to Sn. in quoting stanzas taken from it. 35 There are other quotations from Sn. with no references to it whatsoever, and at one place (Milp. 36) he quotes Sn. 184 and acknowledges it as a stanza of the Samyuttanikāya (S.I. 214). It is only in one instance (Milp. 369) that a sutta in Sn. is mentioned by name; viz. in quoting Sn. 29 he says, Vuttam' p'etam Mahārāja, Bhagavatā devâtidevena Suttanipāte

Dhaniyagopālakasutte. Now, the only occurrence of Sn. 207 in the whole work is as the opening verse of the Muni Sutta, and it may be said with certainty that the author of Milp. knew the Muni Sutta as belonging to Sn. Although Milp. is a comparatively late work (cc. 80 B.C.), 36 all these quotations show that Sn. was perhaps known to its author as it is found to-day.

The earlier inscriptional evidence from the Bhābru Minor Rock Edict of Aśoka shows that the *Muni Sutta* was a popular piece even as early as the third century B.C. The fact that the Pāli versions of the episode of Soṇa do not include the *Muni Sutta* among the pieces recited by him does not in any way prove that the *sutta* was not known to the compilers of these respective works. It is only in the more enlarged versions of the episode that the *Muni Sutta* as well as other well known sections of the Scriptures are mentioned. However, the testimony of the Bhābru edict is sufficient to show that the *sutta* was known in comparatively early times.

The indirect evidence from the position of the *sutta* in the *vagga* has been discussed earlier. Yet, it should be observed that the inclusion of the *Muni Sutta* in *Sn.* had taken place at least a good many years before the final edition of *Milp*. Thus, all these isolated references to *Munigāthā* and quotations from the *Muni Sutta* strongly support the internal evidence from all sources to establish that the *sutta* is of great antiquity.

(Continued)

^{31.} PBR 1, 3, p. 146.

^{32.} *ibid*. See also the introduction to the *Pārāyana Vagga*.

Sylvan Lèvi, J.A., 1915, p. 401 ff.
 Rhys Davids. J.P.T.S., 1896, p. 95.

^{35.} viz. Milp. 369, 385, 411, 413-414, and 414.

^{36.} Mrs. Rhys Davids, Outlines of Buddhism, p. 103.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

N. A. Javawickrama

Five Suttas of Popular Character

Parābhava Sutta

The Parābhava Sutta and the four other suttas which are discussed here belong to a stratum of popular Buddhism, and they emphasise the practical side of Buddhism, laying down secular advice. The Parābhava Sutta is presented as a dialogue between a deity and the Buddha wherein parā+ 1/bhū the causes for men's downfall are enumerated by the Buddha $(par\bar{a}+\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}: defeat)$. Though there is no deep philosophy underlying this sutta its advice is based on high ethical principles. The vices and evils denounced by Buddhist and contemporary Indian society are portrayed here as in the Vasala Sutta. It not only reflects the attitude of the age towards social evils such as the lack of filial piety, disrespect for elders and virtuous men, miserliness, arrogance, addiction to wine, women, and gambling and general unchastity, but also serves as an index to what was considered wrong in man's dealings with other men right down the ages in Indian society. These very sentiments are expressed and repeated over and over in numerous other works of Indian literature, especially the Dharmaśāstras and Dharmasūtras, and the sutta is characteristically Indian but not merely Buddhistic. The highly ethical basis underlying the sutta runs through the whole poem. The Mahāmangala Sutta which lays down in the form of "Blessings" the good qualities one should practise is more Buddhistic in its values than this sutta, though the two poems taken together are complementary to each other as they are based on the same ethical principles. The fact that this poem was meant for the common man is seen clearly from the last pāda of the concluding stanza, which speaks of a sivam lokam as opposed to sivam padam, the synonym for Nibbana. The word ariva (Sn. 1150) has a wider application than the normal Buddhist term.

The language of the sutta is generally archaic. The noteworthy peculiarities are:—the historical infinitive putthum (Sn. 91c), the historical ppr. gen. sg. parābhavato in the refrain, the adjectival form-vijāno (Sn. 92ab), the word bhavam ("worthy"—Sn. 92a) used as in (Skr. bhavān), the primary adjective dessī (\(\sqrt{dvis}\)—Sn. 92d), the verb roceti (Sn. 94c) formed after verbs of Class X, the agent noun anutthata (Sn. 96b), the dialectical

form pahu in the phrase pahu santo (being able or capable of pra+ 1/bhū. Sn. 98c, cp. pahuta Sn. 102a, etc. and in frequent use in the Canon, specially in cpds.), the shorter form sam-in the cpd. saññātim (Sn. 104c, cp. Skr. svam-besides svaka, P. saka, also cp. schi-Sn. 108a; sam and sehi are poetical forms rather than dialectical variations), the contracted dialectical form poso (Sn. 110a; vide Geiger§ 30.3), the contracted form issā (Sn. 110c). the verb supati (Sn. 110c, cp. supina—Sn. 360, etc.) and the uncontracted verb of Class X, patthayati (Sn. 114c). All these forms show that the language of the sutta is rather old. It is also evident that there is an abundance of pure poetical forms as distinct from the normal canonical idiom and that the diction of the whole sutta is highly poetic. The poetical forms of interest are:—dhammadessī (Sn. 92d), kodhapaññāno (Sn. 96c), timbaruthanim (Sn. 110b), etc. The verb interposed between the substantive and the adjective, e.g. lokam bhajate sivam (Sn. 115d), khattiye jāvate kule (Sn. 114b) etc., the disjunctive employed between the substantive and the adjective e.g. purisam vā pi tādisam (Sn. 112b) or even the position of the demonstrative adjective in the refrain of the stanzas attributed to the Bhagava, i.e. pathamo so parabhavo, etc. are all characteristic of the poetic language.

The style of the sutta is neither heavy nor ornate. Though the stanzas are highly antithetical, their style is swift and vigorous. Poetical devices such as simile, metaphor or pun are few, and in fact there is only one metaphor in the whole poem: i.e. Sn. 110b. No definite inference can be drawn from the metre of this poem. The 25 stanzas are in Anustubh Śloka. There is anacrusis in Sn. 91c and even quarters of the Vipulā-type are found at Sn. 91a, 102a, 110ac, 112a and 114c. The vigorous Śloka metre is best adapted to narrative or dialogue ballads. Doctrinal Developments here are almost negligible, but the word anutthata reminds one of the positive concept utthanaviriya, a term of early doctrinal import. All the available evidence from language, style and metre suggests an early date for the sutta. The archaic language rich in historical forms, both verbal and nominal and containing dialectical variations, the free and easy style and the old poetic diction unmarred by any artificial poetic devices are in full accord with its early origin.

External Evidence may yield some data regarding a relative date. The comprehensive code of Moral Law promulgated by Asoka has a great deal in common with the Parābhava, Vasala and Mangala Suttas. Although Mookerji2 is emphatic that Asoka's "Dharma" was not Buddhism but his own ethical philosophy, the strange similarity of ideas in his code

Helmer Smith, Sn.A. 640-641.
 Rādhakumud Mookerji, Asoka, p. 68, Gackwad Lectures, 1928.

of ethics and in these *suttas* is conclusive evidence of the connection between the two. Seeing how far he is influenced by Buddhism and Buddhist literature the inference that he based his code on *suttas* such as these are similar literature is quite justifiable. The fact that Asoka not only is acquainted with the ideas here, but also inculcates them is proof of the popularity of secular ethics of this type.

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Vasala Sutta

The position of the Vasala Sutta in the vagga immediately after the Parābhava Sutta leads one to the natural inference that an attempt has been made at an arrangement of the suttas according to their subject-matter. Such instances are quite frequent in the Canon. The two suttas, Parābhava and Vasala agree with each other in subject-matter, style, language and metre while the two differ in details regarding the outward form. The Vasala Sutta falls into the "Ākhyāna"-class, though the Parābhava Sutta cannot be strictly called so. The gāthas of the former can form an independent sutta without the brahmin being introduced to it at all, but the latter is a pure dialogue like the Kasibhāradvāja Sutta. In contents the two suttas agree very closely. Lack of filial affections is deplored in identical words (Sn. 98, 124) and so is deception practised on brahmins and holy men (Sn. 100, 129). The four major evils of killing, stealing, falsehood and adultery are condemned in Sn. 117-123 (Vasala). Falsehood is referred to in Sn. 100 and adultery in Sn. 108 (Parābhava). Both poems deal with anger (Sn. 96, 116, 133), pride and arrogance (Sn. 104, 132), miserliness and lack of hospitality (Sn. 102, 128, 130) and various other social evils. The same subject is dealt with in identical words in two instances (quoted above—Sn. 98, 124; 100, 129). The Vasala Sutta deals more fully and in a more comprehensive manner with most of the subjects taken up in the Parābhava Sutta; and mentions more vices and evil practices than the latter. Though both suttas are true to the spirit of early Indian ethics, the Vasala Sutta goes a step further in emphasising that one's own actions alone qualify one for condemnation and not one's birth (jāti). The gāthā,

Na jaccā vasalo hoti, na jaccā hoti brāhmaņo kammanā vasalo hoti, kammanā hoti brāhmaņo.

(Not by birth does one become an outcaste or a brahmin, but by one's action one becomes an outcaste or a brahmin) occurs twice in the *sutta*, and an illustrative anecdote is appended. The *gāthā* clearly conveys the Buddhist attitude to caste and the note struck here is truly Buddhistic.

The sutta itself can be divided into four parts:-

- I. The prose introduction the prelude to the sutta.
- II. The body of the sutta (Sn. 116-136) containing the aphoristic sayings dealing with the various vices and evil practices.
- III. The short dissertation on kamma (action) including the colourful illustration of Mātanga.
- IV. Aggikabhāradvāja's confession of faith in prose, forming the conclusion of the sutta.

Observations:

The sutta can retain its characteristics and form a coherent whole without parts, I, III and IV and yet be called Vasala Sutta. Sn. 136 appears as a crescendo and concluding verse of the sutta. This is further strengthened by Sn. 135 which, in addition to its extra pādas sums up the categories of vasalas in its last line,

Ete kho vasalā vuttā, mayā vo ye pakāsitā

(These whom I have declared unto you are vasalas). This summing up may be compared with Sn. 269, the concluding gāthā of the Mahāmangala Sutta. In both instances the refrain occurs up to the gāthā immediately preceding the respective stanzas, and thus Sn. 135 provides a suitable conclusion to the sutta. The next stanza too, which in a dramatic manner breaks down the age-old barrier of caste and attributes baseness to base actions rather than to birth, probably belonged to the original sutta. The illustration (nidassana) that follows appears as a separate sutta or as a separate section appended to the sutta at a subsequent date. The position of these six stanzas at the end of the sutta makes this suggestion very plausible. The repetition of Sn. 136 at Sn. 142 is merely for the purpose of emphasising this essentially Buddhistic aphorism. It also provides a suitable climax to the enhanced sutta.

There is no doubt that the episode of Mātanga is borrowed from popular tradition. The story Mātanga occurs in the Anuśāsanika-parvan of the Mahābhārata (Mbh. XIII, 3, 198 ff), but it differs considerably in details from that in Sn. Both Sn. and Mbh. agree on his lowly birth (Candālayon-yām jāto, Mbh, XIII, 3, 198). The outline of the legend in Mbh. is:—"Mātanga, son of a brāhmani was informed by a she-ass that he was in reality a candāla, and in vain tried by way of penance to become a brahmin; at last he succeeded in becoming Candodeva". The exsitence of a parallel legend in Mbh. need not necessarily imply that either was based on the other. The probability is that both versions go back to an earlier

^{3.} s.v. Sörensen, Index to the Names in Mahābhārata.

tradition (probably oral) and the two as they are, represent parallel developments. (Also cp. Mātanga Jātaka).

On the other hand, the position of Sn. 124 and 129 seems different. The topic under discussion in Sn. 125 is cruelty by word or deed to one's own kith and kin. It seems probable that the connected idea of not supporting one's aged parents has been transported here, and the stanza borrowed wholesale. Similarly, Sn. 129 appears as an interpolation. The stanza that immediately precedes it (Sn. 128) denounces the action of the person who does not return hospitality to his erstwhile host; and the stanza that follows it (Sn. 130) condemns the person who, instead of feeding them abuses brahmins or samanas who come to his door at meal-time. Both these stanzas deal with the feeding of guests or mendicants, but Sn. 129 speaks of the deception practised on mendicants, religious or otherwise, by uttering falsehood. Although Sn. 129 disturbs the logical trend of the two stanzas on either side of it, the occurrence of the phrase, vo brāhmanam vā samaņam vā in Sn. 130 seems to have been considered sufficient reason to introduce Sn. 129 which incidentally begins with the same phrase. The inference that Sn. 124 and 129 are interpolations implies that the Parābhava Sutta is earlier than the Vasala Sutta. This need not necessarily be so. The only legitimate conclusion is that the final redaction of the latter took place after the composition of the former. The position of these two stanzas in the two suttas sheds some light on this point. In the Parābhava Sutta, these two stanzas dealing with similar topics, occur as consecutive answers given by the Bhagava, whereas in the Vasala Sutta they are separated by four other stanzas, two of which (i.e. Sn. 126, 127) deal with a different topic altogether.

The similarity of ideas in the two poems does not call for particular attention on account of the fact that they deal with parctically the same subject, Language, style, metre and syntax too do not help in determining the age of the two poems in relation to each other. It is solely on the data provided by these two stanzas and the occurrence of the illustrative episode of Mātanga, (when the sutta proper could end at Sn. 135ef where the categories of vasalas are summed up, or at Sn. 136 which provides a fitting climax) it can be said that the sutta may have undergone a change at the hands of a subsequent editor. The stanzas Sn. 137-142 appear as a subsequent addition made by a later editor. It is quite probable that the earliest form of this sutta did not include these six stanzas, Sn. 124 and 129, nor perhaps the prose sections. Judging from internal and external evidence the earliest versions of both suttas appear contemporary.

As stated earlier the language of the $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}s$ is quite similar to that of the $Par\bar{a}bhava\ Sutta$. There are old historical forms like the opt. 3 sg. $ja\tilde{n}n\bar{a}$

(Sn. 116d-134d), the denominative mamāyitam (Sn. 119b), shorter inst. sg. theyvā (Sn. 119c—Vedic steya nt.), the ppr. pass, cujjamāno (Sn. 120b). the contracted verb ādeti (Sn. 121c) besides ādiyati (Sn. 119c) the absolutive bhutvāna (Sn. 128b-also poetical), the ppr. medial of the desiderative nijigimsano (Sn. 131c), the pronom. adj. inst, sg. sena (Skr. svena, cp. sam Sn. 104c, sehi Sn. 108a, 132c), the inst. sgg. jaccā (Sn. 136ab, 142ab). duggaccā (Sn. 141d), kammanā (Sn. 136cd, 142cd) and aminā (Sn. 137a cp. also amunā) and 3 pl. A. pada upadissare (Sn. 140d). Besides the poetical forms like bhutvāna, upadissare, sena, etc. there occur in this sutta as in the previous one many cpds. e.g. pāpamakkhī (Sn. 116b), vipannaditthi (Sn. 116c), paticchannakammanto (Sn. 127c), etc. The sutta preserves the old Pāli idiom, e.g. pāne dayā, (Sn. 117c), yam paresam mamāyitam (Sn. 119b), etc. Often the same idiom, is seen to occur in canonical prose. e.g. attahetu, parahetu, dhanahetu. (Sn. 122ab), akincikkhakamyatā (Sn. 121a, cp. lābhakamyatā). There is an irregular acc. sg. of the ppr. vajatam (Sn. 121b, v.1. vajantam vide Geiger, §130; the Comy. explains it as gacchantam-SnA. 179). There is also an abundance of Vedic enclitics like ve and ha-ve (vai and ha vai). All these characteristics of old Pāli and the general diction of the poem which is archaic suggest an early for the sutta.

The Style and metre of the poem are similar to those of the *Parābhāva Sutta*. The metrical irregularities are few; i.e. odd quarters at Sn. 118a, 121a and 123c and an even pāda at Sn. 124c.⁴ Evidence from language, style and metre shows that the two poems are contemporary, though on careful examination some parts of the *Vasala Sutta* appear to be younger than the *Parābhava Sutta*.

No doctrinal developments as such are noticeable in the sutta. However in spirit it is more Buddhistic than the former. The four major evils of killing, stealing adultery and falsehood have already been noticed to occur in Sn. 117-123, in same order as the first four precepts, in addition to the other allied misdeeds as highway robbery and plunder. In spite of the popular nature of the sutta the occurrence of the two terms, dittheva dhamme and sampāraye (Sn. 141ab) suggests some development in Buddhistic ideas; but these terms are of no great value as they are equally common in early Indian literature. The words vipannadithi (Sn. 116c), moha (Sn. 131b), arahā and anarahā (Sn. 135ab) are not used in their specialized meaning as found in Buddhism. It is significant that Sn. 134b speaks of the sāvakas and not of the Sangha, and it is probable that this sutta is quite distinct from monastic Buddhism. The phrase khattiyā brāhmanā in Sn. 138, like the canonical phrase samana-brāhmanā, unconsciously suggests the order of precedence as the Buddhists conceived

^{4.} Helmer Smith, ibid.

it,5 though the sutta itself repudiates the stigma attached to low birth. The mention of devayana, the path leading to the devas in Sn. 139 shows to some extent how far the sutta echoes the then-current Indian thought. It is clear that the goal aimed at is brahmaloka. The earlier Upanisads⁶ mention the two paths by which a departed soul proceeds to enjoy the fruits of his actions. They are the devayand or the arcirmarga the path of light leading to the plane of Brahmā or satyaloka and the pitryāna or the dhūmamārga, the path of darkness leading to the region of the moon or candraloka. When Indian thought evolved and gradually established the identity of Self with Brahman, devayāna became the path leading to the union with the Highest.7 It is not clear what stage of development in Indian thought Sn. 139 reflects, yet the final goal mentioned is brahmaloka. Peshaps sivam lokam (the world of happiness at Sn. 115) also refers to the same state.8 The Commentator rightly interprets it as devalokam (Sn.A. 173). Both these reference show that these poems are not doctrinal dissertations but suttas meant for the inculcation of popular ethics.

All the available external evidence too shows that the sutta belongs to the realm of popular ethics. It contains ideas common with the Epics and other Sanskrit literature. Sn. 122 may be compared with Manu. VIII, 13; Sn. 128 with Mbh. XIII, 126; 27; and Taittiriyasikṣāvallī 11, 2; and Sn. 135 with Manu. X, 12; 16 and 26, etc. The observations made with reference to the Parābhava Sutta that Asoka's moral code apply here too. The gāthās appear to be very old in the light of internal evidence and the testimony from the Edicts suggests that they should be at least pre-Asokan.

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Mahāmangala Sutta

It has already been stated that the Mahāmangala Sutta (also known as the Mangala Sutta) is complementary to the Parābhava Sutta. Both suttas contain a short prose introduction with identical words, and a devatā is introduced as the Buddha's interlocutor. The only difference in form, between the two suttas is that the Mangala Sutta unlike the other, is not a proper dialogue, for, the $devat\bar{a}$ is represented as asking only one question to which the Buddha gives an uninterrupted reply. The two suttas categorically state the various factors which lead to one's downfall and which are considered as blessings respectively, and conclude didactically summing up the enumeration. A regular feature in the poems is the

refrain which is a feature in the greater part of the Vasala Sutta. The sutta lays emphasis on good living and gives practical advice. It is essentially didactic like the gnomic poetry of the Sanskrit literature. The word mangala conveyed to the brahmins anything that was considered as auspicious. In every society, whether past or present, Occidental or Oriental, there are certain beliefs and superstitions to which people attach some importance in varying degrees. Mangala to a brahmanical society in ancient India represented all the sights and sounds, actions, ritual and ceremonies which they deemed holy or auspicious. In this sutta the Buddha is seen giving a new value to the term mangala employing it to stress the importance of a righteous living. The sutta does not attempt to teach anything new, but inculcates in a different form the ethical principles already known to the Indians. There is no deep philosophy underlying the sutta, yet it has to some extent a Buddhist background. The theme, kālēna dhamma savanam (Sn. 265c, listening to the dhamma at the proper time) kālena dhamma-sākacchā (Sn. 266c, religious discussions at the proper time), samanānam ca dassanam (Sn. 266b, paying homage to the monks), ariyasaccāna dassanam (Sn. 267b, an insight into the ariyannoble truths) and nibbānasacchikiriyā (Sn. 267b, the realization of nibbāna) are decidedly of Buddhistic application though dhammacariyā (Sn. 263a, living in accordance with the dhamma), appamado ca dhammesu (Sn. 264c, perseverance in doing good deeds) and patirūpadesavāsa (Sn. 200a, living in a suitable region) are capable of being given a wider interpretation than suggested by the Commentator (Pi. I. 123-157). The perfect balance of mind under all conflicting circumstances. (Sn. 268) is again a characteristically Buddhist concept. The sutta thus is essentially Buddhistic although it deals with popular ethics.

This sutta occurs verbatim in the Khuddaka-patha and the Paritta-pātha.9 It is also one of the Tun-sūtraya (the Three Suttas, the other two being Ratana and Metta Suttas), used at Pirit ceremonies; which shows that the sutta has enjoyed great popularity from comparatively early times (when the Khp. was compiled); up to the present day. 10 There is a jātaka known

The sequence Khattiyā, Brāhmanā, Vessā, Suddā occurs many times in M. and D.
 Brhadāranyaka Upanisad, VI. 2, 2; IV. 11, etc.
 Also vide Radhakrishnan, Indian Philosophy, Vol. I, pp. 252-255.

^{8.} As stated earlier, this term cannot refer to nibbāna as the mention of a "nibbānaoka" anywhere in the Canon. It is either nibbana pada or nibbāna dhātu.

^{9.} The Paritta-pātha is a collection of suttas varying in number from 28 to 32, taken from various parts of the Canon. It is known in Ceylon as the Pirit-pota (the Book of Pirit). Also vide Winternitz, History of Indian Literature, Vol. II, p. 80.

^{10.} Khp. as a collection cannot be of very early date. From the negative evidence that no mention of it is made in the Canon or in Miln. it may be inferred that it came into being sometimes later, though argument from silence is not always very satisfactory evidence. On the other hand, Miln. mentions Sn. by name (vide U.C.R. Vol. VII, 3), and it is quite probable that the author of Miln. know Sn. as it exists to-day. Miln. 349 mentions Khuddaka-bhānakā, but this is no evidence for the existence of Khp. It only refers to a collection of minor pieces, probably the greater part of what is now known as Khuddaka Nikāya, just in the same way as Dīgha or Majjhima-bhārakā referred to the reciters of long or medium sized suttas which were invariably included in the Digha and Majjhima Nikāyas respectively. Thus, the earliest collection in which Mangala Sutta was included is probably Sn. though it may have existed earlier as an individual sutta.

as the Mahāmangala Jātaka (No. 453) which the Commentator (J. IV, 72-73) associates with the Mangala Sutta and quotes the opening pāda of the devatā's question mentioning that the total number of mangalas enumerated in the sutta is 38; but it has no connection whatsoever with the present sutta, and it is in reality a dissertation on happiness in accordance with Brahmanical ideas of life rather than Buddhistic principles.

There are no specific linguistic forms in the *sutta* that may be classed as very ancient, nor are there signs of lateness in the language. It is the normal Gāthā-Pāli idiom with the usual poetic diction. The stanzas are highly rhythmical and melodious. There is no involved syntax and the language is simple. The few linguistic forms which call for attention are:—acintayum (Sn. 258b) the historical Aorist 3 pl., sotthanam (Sn. 258c) acc. sg. of sotthana nt. cp. Skr. svastvavana, sovacassatā (Sn. 266a) abstract of the secondary form from su-vacas and the usage of dassanam (Sn. 266b, 267b) in its literal and applied meanings of visiting to pay homage and unsight into (vision of), respectively. The phrases mātāpitu-upatthānam (Sn. 262a), ariyasaccāna-dassanam (Sn. 267b) and sabbattha-m-aparājitā (Sn. 269b) betray the flexibility of sandhi in Pali, specially in metrical exigencies. The metre of the poem is Anustubh Śloka, and the few metrical irregularities are: one instance of anacrusis at Sn. 260a and two instances of even quarters at Sn. 260c and 265c. The sutta contains a few special Buddhistic terms in addition to those that are in common with contemporary Indian religious systems. Ariyasaccāna-dassanam (Sn. 267b) is a definite reference to the Noble Truths of Buddhism, and nibbanasacchikiriyā (Sn. 267c) is the attainment consequent on the obtaining of an insight into the Arivan Truths. Other concepts such as tapo (ascetic practices) brahmacariyā (celibacy) Sn. 267a, attasammāpanidhi (a thorough development of personality—Sn. 260c), khanti (forbearance—Sn. 266a) etc. are of general Indian origin and therefore are of no special importance.

External Evidence consists mainly of a comparison with the Moral Law of Asoka promulgated in the Edicts. Asoka's dharma, like the sayings in the three suttas, Vasala, Parābhava and Mangala, is not any religious system peculiar to one sect or school, but contains practical and doctrinal advice embracing the various relations of life. However, a close comparison shows that Asoka had drawn his material from a literature very similar to these suttas. From his acquaintance with certain parts of the Canon i.e. the seven Dharmaparyāyas some of which have been traced to Sn. (vide PBR, 1, 3, p. 137) it may be inferred that he was equally acquainted with these suttas. The following table 11 shows to what extent the contents of these suttas can be compared with Asoka's dharma: Asoka:

Sutta Nipāta:

- 1. Obedience to (a) elders R.E. IV, 12 (anu- Sn. 259b, panditānam ca pratī patīpati) P.E. VII, (b) teachers R.E. sevanā. XIII, P.E. VII.
- 2. Respect (a) of pupils-antevāsī-towards their gurūs M.R.E. II, (b) towards gurūs yānam. R.E. IX.

Sn. 259c, pūjā ca pūjaney-265a, gāravo.

- 3. Proper treatment towards (a) ascetics, Sn. 100, 129, 130. both brāhmana and samana R.E. IV, P.E. Sn. 98-124, 102, 104c, 125. VII. (b) relations M.R.E. II, R.E. IV, XIII.
- 4. Charity (dānam) R.E. III, VII, VIII, IX, Sn. 263a, 102c. XI.
- 5. Abstention from slaughter of and Sn. 117-118. violence towards living beings, R.E. III, IV, XI, P.E. VII, R.E. IX, IV, P.E. VIII, R.E. XIII, M.R.E. II, cp. R.E. III, IV, IX, XI, XIII and P.E. VII.
- 6. Kindness (dayā) P.E. II, VII.

Cp. Metta Sutta, Sn. 143-153.

- 7. Truthfulness (satyam) M.R.E. II, P.E. II, Sn. 122c, 100c, 129c. VII.
- 8. Gentleness (mārdavam) R.E. XIII, P.E. VII.

Sn. 143d.

9. Gratitude (krtajñatā) R.E. VII.

Sn. 265b.

10. Attachment to dharma (Asokan morality) R.E. XIII.

Sn. 92c, 263a, 264c, 265c, 266c.

11 Purity of heart (bhāva śuddhi) R.E. VII. Sn. 260c, cp. yakkhassa

suddhi Sn. 478, 876.

Of the requisite qualities mentioned in P.E. I for the attainment of happiness in this world and the next, dharma-kāmatā occupies the first place (No. 10 in Table). Suśrūsī (obedience), No. 1 in table bhaya (fear to do wrong-cp. ottappa in Pāli, Sn. 133c, etc.), and utsāha (effort-cp. uṭṭhānaviriya, see anutthātā, Sn. 96b) are three others. In R.E. XIII Asoka summarises his 'Dharma' as 1. Aksati (non-injury-cp. Sn. 117-118) 2. samyama (restraint quite frequent in the Muni-Ballads of Sn. cp. Sn. 264, etc.) 3. samacaranam (impartiality) and mārdavam (gentleness; No. 8 in table). On these and numerous other points (enumerated by Mookerji, Asoka, pp. 69-78) Asoka's "Dharma" bears a strong resemblance to the

^{11.} This table is based on Radhakumud Mookerji's analysis of the Moral Law of Asoka in his Gaekwad Lectures, pp. 69 ff.

^{12.} R.E.: Rock Edict, P.E.: Pillar Edict, M.R.E.: Minor Rock Edict.

ideology of these suttas. Although one may not be quite certain of the existence of Sn. as a collection in Asoka's time, there is no doubt that many of the suttas constituting Sn. were anterior to Asoka. It has already been noticed that Asoka had been influenced by a literature quite similar to these popular ethics. The internal evidence reveals that the suttas are old, and that they preserve definite characteristics of the poetic language which probably preceded the standardised canonical Pali prose. It is thus highly probable that these suttas were known to Asoka.

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Metta Sutta

The Metta Sutta, another member of the triad of suttas, is also found in Khp. as No. 9. The Commentator's introduction which is historically of a lower level of interpretation states that the sutta was preached by the Buddha as a topic of meditation to monks and to serve the purpose of a paritta to ward off dangers arising from evil spirits (Pi. I. 231-232). There is no doubt that the sutta provided a useful topic of meditation for both monks and laymen, and in subsequent years, even as early as the commentarial epoch, or perhaps earlier, it was used as a paritta. Its inclusion in Khp., a handbook of popular Buddhism, indicates that this sutta, like its two companion suttas, was very popular from comparatively early times. The sutta inculcates the practice of metta (amity, or love to all beings). The theme is an early tenet of Buddhism and the idea corresponds to davā of the Sanskrit epics and other allied literature. Even before the four Brahma-vihāras were fixed and standardised the term mettā is to be met with in association with such concepts as upekhā, karunā, vimutti and muditā (Sn. 73). The theme is developed from various aspects in the sutta:—(a) Wishing happiness and well-being to all creatures irrespective of their size or form or stage of growth (bhūtā vā sambhavesī vā: creatures come into being or in their embryonic state, Sn. 147c). (b) The negative aspect of the absence of ill-will towards them (Sn. 148). (c) The development of boundless thoughts of love, as deep as maternal affection to all creatures (Sn. 149). (d) The diffusion of unobstructed thoughts of loving kindness in all directions at all times (Sn. 149-150). It is extolled as the brahma-vihāra—the highest abiding¹³ (Sn. 151). The 10 opening lines of the sutta are of an introductory nature. They describe the atthakusala he who is bent on his welfare. Though santam padam—tranquilled state (Sn. 143)—need not necessarily always signify nibbāna, the qualifying remark that the atthakusala should be detached from family life (Sn. 144d) suggests that the poem was primarily meant for the monks. A descriptive classification of creatures is made at Sn. 146 and another mutually exhaustive and more precise division at Sn. 147c¹⁴. The development of a mental attitude (mānasam bhāvayati, cp. Sn. 149d, 150b) consisting of the thoughts of love is the keynote of the poem and it concludes with an exhortation to make an end of birth (Sn. 152d).

As far as linguistic evidence goes what has been said of the other suttas applies here too. There is ellipsis in the opening stanza of the sutta (Sn. 143). The form additthā at Sn. 147a has -dd- either metri causa or as a consonantal doubling after the negative prefix; cp. appasada. The indefinite adverb katthacinam (Sn. 148b) contains a contamination of two indefinite suffixes cid and cana. There are two forms with the contraction of the final -āya>-ā viz. vyārosanā and patighasaññā: (Sn. 148c). The regular form niva for Vedic nija (also P. nija) through Prakrit nia (vide Geiger § 36) occurs. Besides these there are other forms sayāno (Sn. 151b) historical ppr. medial, the affirmative particle jātu (Sn. 152d) which is practically confined to poetry, Vedic forms as āyusā (Sn. 149b) and a wealth of optative forms illustrative of various types used in Pali; viz. 3 sg. assa (Sn. 143d), 3 sg. samācare (Sn. 145a), anurakkhe (Sn. 149b), bhāvaye (Sn. 149d, 150b), medial 3 sg. nikubbetha (Sn. 148a) iccheyya (Sn. 148d). adittheyya (Sn. 151c) and 3 pl. upaddaveyyum (Sn. 145b). There also occurs an inorganic sandhi at Sn. 151d. viz. idha-m-āhu.

The style of the *sutta* is free and easy to a great extent and the ideas are expressed lucidly. The *sutta* being didactic, the greater part of it is explanatory and injunctive. Though it contains two long lists (Sn. 143c-144d, 1461-147d) no laboured effect is produced, as there is an easy flow of words along with its rhythmic effect. There is only one simile in the whole poem (Sn. 149ab) and it appears quite apt, as it emphasises the central theme. The poem is written in a metre described as $Ary\bar{a}$ ($G\bar{t}ii$) by Helmer Smith. Yet the metre here is not the proper classical $G\bar{t}ii$ or any of its sub-types including $Ary\bar{a}$. Normally the syllabic instants of the first and third $p\bar{a}das$ of the $G\bar{t}ii$ metres are limited to 12, whereas the other two $p\bar{a}das$ vary from 15 to 18. None of these 10 stanzas corresponds to any of the varieties of the classical $G\bar{t}ii$ metre, and at best what is found here is a very free modification of the $Ary\bar{a}$ - $G\bar{t}ii$. The syllabic instants of the *Metta Sutta* vary from 11, 17, 13, 17 in Sn. 152 to 16, 17, 15, 18 in Sn.

^{13.} Mrs. Rhys Davids (in "What was the Original Gospel of Buddhism?") thinks that this line preserves "a metrical legacy" of the disciples of an unknown Brahmin teacher, and sees God in the epithet brahma. She translates Sn. 151d as, "God have they here this living called".

^{14.} It is significant that the classification into the five types jalābuja, andaja, samsedaja and opapātika (viviparous, oviparous, moisture born and of spontaneous birth), a division known to be in use comparatively early in India, does not occur here. It may perhaps indicate that the Buddhist writers had not yet adapted it in their works during the time of these suttas, though the classification occurs in prose sections of the Canon (D. III. 2:0, M. I. 73 S. III, 240, etc.).

15. Op. cit. (Sn.A. 637).

147. In two instances the number of mātrās (syllabic instants) in a full stanza is less than 60, in two 60 (the prescribed number in Sanskrit poetics) and in the other six over 60. However it is worth noting that this metre stands "between the more archaic technique of the śloka-tristubh and the iagatis, atijagatis, etc. of the late-canonical and semi-canonical compositions", 16

Doctrinal developments. In its tone and outlook the sutta bears signs of antiquity. The term atthakusala (Sn. 143a) probably refers to the attha (weal) pertaining to both this world and the next. The emphasis on a life which is beyond the censure of the wise (Sn. 145ab) may suggest that the attha was primarily connected with this world. The Commentator, however, interprets santam padam (Sn. 143b) as nibbāna (Pi. I. 236) merely because the term is used as a synonym for the latter. Yet, the state of mental tranquillity referred to here is capable of a more general interpretation. This is further supported by Sn. 143cd-145ab, which do not apply to one who has attained nibbana: and therefore attha should be interpreted as benefit here on earth rather than well-being after death or even paramattha the summum bonum.

The ideal envisaged in Sn. 144 is that of the ascetic or the muni. This certainly reflects early material. The next two lines which allude to public opinion are not wholly inconsistent with the Muni-ideal, though as a rule the muni is not influenced by the outside world (cp. Sn. 213b, 214b, etc.). This difference in attitude does not imply a later phase of development, nor does it indicate any real departure from the ideal in early Buddhism. The probability is that the sutta was meant for a wider circle than ascetics alone, and the authority of the viññū had to be reckoned with in preparing one's self for the tranquil-state of mind which would be the basis for the contemplation (mānasam bhāveti) on mettā. The concept of mettā is suggested to be of pre-Buddhistic origin, ¹⁷ but Buddhism and its senior contemporary religion Jainism were responsible for the widespread movement of not only non-injury to living things, but the actual practice of amity towards them. The phrase mānasam bhāveti (develop a frame of mind; cp. manīsā Rv. X. 129) is not in frequent use in the language, and the word mānasa used absolutely is semi-technical in character (s.v., PTS). Neither the concept mettā nor the term mānasa yields any conclusive data. The two words ditthi and dassana (Sn. 152) are used as mutually contradictory terms from the earliest times:18 they are diametrically opposed to each other in their semantic development

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though they are derivatives from the same root (dr.s). There is hardly an instance of ditthi being qualified as sammā or micchā in all the 45 occurrences of the word in Sn. The term ditthi embraces all philosophical views and speculations which were (perhaps later) designated as micchāditthi. while dassana is a more precise concept signifying insight. The latter has no bearing on the question of the difference between sammāditthi and micchāditthi.

External evidence—The only form of external evidence available is the occurrence of similar or parallel ideas in other works. The idea mettā. occurs frequently in the Canon in the list of Brahmavihāras, and also singly in various other contexts, e.g. mettā ceto-vimutti at D. I. 251, S.II. 265, A. IV. 150, It. 20, etc., mettā-sahagatena cetasā at D. 1. 250, etc., S.V. 115, A. I. 138, etc., mettam cittam at D. I. 167, III. 237, Sn. 507, Vin. II. 110, A. II. 72, Th1. Th2, etc. and mettā-bhāvanā at Miln. 199. At S. I. 75 Pasenadi Kosala declares to Mallikā that the dearest thing to a person is his own self. At the end of the conversation they go to the Buddha who advises them

> Sabbā disânuparigamma cetasā n'ev' ajjhagamā piyataram attanā kyaci. evam piyo puthu attā paresam tasmā na himse param attakāmo.

(Having mentally surveyed all directions I have not found anywhere, anything so dear to me as my own self. So is it to the others that each one's self is dear. Therefore let him who loves his own self not bring harm upon another). Cp. Sn. 705, Dh. 129, 130. Here the standard of judgment in refraining from injury to others is one's love for one's own self. The same idea is reflected in Yajñavalkya's advice to Maitreyi in Brhadāranyaka Upanisad (Brh. II. 4: IV. 5) cp. Bhg. VI. 32 which conveys the same idea. A passage occurring at Mbh. XI. 7, 1

> Na hy ātmānam priyataram kiñcid bhūteşu niścitam: anistam sarva-bhūtānām maranam nāma Bhārata: tasmāt sarvesu bhūtesu dayā kāryā vipaścitā.

(Undoubtedly there is nothing so dear to beings as their own selves: indeed, death is most unpleasant to all creatures, O son of Bharata. Therefore let the wise man extend kindness to all creatures) is quite similar to the passage at S.I. 75.

In all these instances the reason adduced for one to refrain from harming others is the love one bears to one's self. On the other hand in the Metta Sutta the practice of mettā is not prompted by any such motives. It is mettā for its own sake. It is not possible to ascertain which idea was

^{16.} Ibid. Helmer Smith.

^{17.} Mrs. Rhys Davids, op. cit.18. Mrs. Rhys Davids in her translation of Khp. in the Minor Anthologies considers this stanza late for reasons she adduces in her introduction.

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earlier. Though the concept *mettā* occurs frequently in early canonical works *mettā bhāvanī* is scarcely mentioned. As a term *mettā bhāvanā* may be of later growth, yet the idea seems old. The creation of an active mental force (*mānasaṃ*) consisting of thoughts of love is fundamentally the same as *mettā bhāvanā*, and is perhaps the predecessor of the latter term.¹⁹

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Ratana Sutta

The popular character of this poem is seen in the opening lines, yānīdha bhūtāni etc. The bhūtas (spirits) are addressed and their goodwill (sumanas) is invoked. They are requested to extend thoughts of friendliness (mettam karotha) to the human race. The naivity and the simplicity of the two opening stanzas are reminiscent of the Vedic hymns. This is specially true of,

divā ca ratto ca haranti ye balim tasmā hi ne rakkhatha appamattā

(who bring you oblations day and night; therefore protect them arduously). Every word of these two stanzas is full of meaning and of echoes. Although these beings are invoked for protection, the central theme is the exaltation of the *Three Ratanas*, Buddha, Dhamma and Sangha. One may see in this sutta a synthesis of popular cults and Buddhism, yet the synthesis is very remote, far from being complete. There is no real adaptation of Buddhism to popular cults and ritual, but on the contrary popular Buddhism has taken for granted a prevalent cult. However, with time there sets in a change and this sutta along with many others becomes a paritta (a ward-rune) and there-by part and parcel of every-day Buddhism. Its inclusion in the "Three Suttas", the Piritpota and the Khp. has already been mentioned.

The invocation of blessings in the *sutta* is in the form of a *saccakriyā* (asseveration by truth) viz. *etena saccena suvatthi hotu*. A remarkable feature of the poem is the evidence of a growth of a complete Buddhist doxology. The term *Tathāgata* an epithet often applied to the Buddha, is extended to both the Dhamma and Sangha.²⁰ Seven of the 12 stanzas

Ye ca Buddhā (dhammā, sanghā) atttāca, ye ca Buddhā (dhammā, sanghā) anāgatā, paccuppannā ca ye Buddhā (dhammā, sanghā). aham vandāmi sabbadā Sn. 224-235 devoted to the Three Ratanas are in praise of the third "Jewel," the Sangha. This may probably indicate a conscious effort on the part of the Sangha to assert its importance. The members of the Sangha are spoken of as the disciples of the Sugata who are worthy of offerings (te dakkhineyyā sugatassa sāvakā—Sn. 227c). They are the recipients of dāna or yañña in Brahmanic terminology, and as such form an important factor for man's acquisition of merit (anuttaram puññakkhettam lokassa). It is obvious that the sutta reflects a time when there had come into existence an organised coenobitic Sangha as opposed to forest dwelling anchorites—munayo. The invitation extended to the bhūtas to join in the worship of the Buddha, Dhamma and Sangha (who are honoured by gods and men—devamanussapūjita) not only betrays the popular nature of the sutta but shows that its composition had taken place when worship formed an essential factor in the religion.

The sutta can be divided into three parts, viz. I. Sn. 222-223, II. Sn. 224-235, and III. Sn. 236-238. Part I forms the introduction which consists of an invitation to the bhūtas whose mettā is invoked. These are the only stanzas of the poem which resemble the Vedic hymns closely. As in the Vedic hymns (a) the opening lines form the invocation (Sn. 222ab), (b) a request is made for their goodwill (Sn. 222cd), (c) their mettā is solicited (223b), (d) they are reminded of services rendered to them (Sn. 223c) and finally (c) their protection is sought. Part II can be further divided into (a) Sn. 224-226 (b) Sn. 227-235. (a) Sn. 226 marks the final stanza said to have been uttered by the Buddha according to one tradition quoted by the Commentator, Apare pana vadanti: ādito pañc eva gāthā bhagayatā vuttā, sesā parittakaranasamaye Anandattherenā ti. (Others maintain that only the five opening stanzas, viz. Sn. 222-226, were uttered by the Blessed One, and the rest by the Elder Ananda on the occasion of the paritta-recital.—Pi. I. 165). It is interesting to note that up to this point the Sangha is not mentioned and it is noteworthy that the only other references to an organised Sangha in Sn. are at 519d and 1015b (the latter in the late prologue to the Pārāyaṇa)22 Although there may be the possibility of some truth underlying this tradition, Sn. 222-226, by themselves, do not form a satisfactory unit as a sutta. On the other hand if Sn. 223 is rejected as a late stanza, since the stanzas corresponding to it in the Mahāvastu version occur somewhat later in the sutta (i.e. vv. 15-16: Myastu. I. 294), it would be possible to infer that Sn. 227 marks the last stanza of a complete unit, thus partly agreeing with the tradition mentioned above. (b) Seven (i.e. Sn. 227-232, 235) of the nine stanzas in this group are devoted to describe the Sangha: and it is apparent from the over

^{19.} Miss J. B. Horner in her Review of *Woven Cadences* (Hibbert Journal, October 1945) points out that the formula *uddham adho ca tiriyam* is found only at Sn. 150 in connection with metta. However, it is found in other passages without any reference to metta; e.g. 537, 1055, 1068, etc.

^{20.} The three formulas used in the Buddhist daily prayer in praise of Buddha, Dhamma and Sangha, viz. Iti' pi so bhagavā-pe-svākkhāto bhagavatā dhammo-pe-and supaṭipanno bhagavato sāvakasangho-pe-respectively, culled from the Canon (e.g. D. II. 93 ff., III. 5, A. I. 207 ff., 56 ff., IV. 406 ff., etc.) may be compared with this. Also cp.

^{21.} C.p Nd. 2. 523

^{22.} There are other references to nāgasangha at Sn; 421b and samanasangha at Sn. 550c in the more general sense of "multitude" as in devasangha at Sn. 680c.

emphasis laid on the Sangha that this section was one of the so-called 'monastic fabrications'. There are nine consecutive stanzas in Mvastu. (Viz. vv. 6-14: Mvastu. I. 291-294) with the refrain, idam pi sanghe ratanam pranītam, etc. Of the other two stanzas, Sn. 233 and 234, the former roughly corresponds to v. 15 in Mvastu, (1. 294) which runs,

Grīṣmānamāse prathame, Caitrasmin vane pragulmā yatha puṣpitāgrū vāteritā te surabhim pravānti evaṃvidhaṃ dhyāyino Buddha putrāh sīlenupetā surabhim pravānti idam pi sanghe ratanam praṇitaṃ etena satyena suvasti bhotu manuṣyato vā

The latter (Sn. 234) has no parallel in Mvastu. From this disparity it may be surmised that the BSK. version was based on different recension of the sutta which perhaps was earlier than or contemporaneous with the Pali. The better arrangement of the expanded version in Mvastu. perhaps indicates that as a sūtra, it is younger than the version preserved in Sn. Part III which consists of the concluding stanzas is attributed neither to the Buddha nor to Ānanda, by the Comy. and tradition, but to Sakka. The last two verses are mere repetitions of Sn. 236 with the Dhamma and Sangha substituted for the Buddha in line c. It has already been observed that these three stanzas show the development of a complete doxology in Buddhists worship. All the three stanzas are found in a condensed form in the concluding verse in Mvastu, (I. 295).

On purely linguistic evidence the sutta appears old; but its contents and developments in ideology and doctrine show that it cannot be as old as the earliest suttas of Sn. Many of the archaic and dialectical forms found in the sutta have no exact parallels in Mvastu. This is clear evidence that the recension from which the sūtra in Mvastu. was compiled had lost sight of such old forms, and found them too obscure to restore the equivalent Sanskritised forms. The phrase divā ca ratto ca (Sn. 223c), though stereotyped, is old; and the younger Pāli would prefer divā ca rattiyā ca (both inst.) or divam ca rattim ca (both acc.) as in Mvastu. divam ca rātrim ca. The adverb of place huram (Sn. 224a, cp. Th 1. 10, Sn. 486c. 470c, etc.) goes back to the dialect of the Brāhmanas). Even though the phrase satam pasatthā (Sn. 227a) is neither irregular nor particularly archaic Mvastu. has sadā praśastā. It is quite probable that the recension that Mvastu. followed contained the idea sadā and not satām. In Mvastu, the

cpd. suppayuttā (Sn. 228a) is replaced by yuktayogī (cp. yogayukto munir Bhg. V. 6), and laddhā mudhā by a totally different idea, vimuktacittā. Though mudhā is met with in Classical Skr. it is an old form. The form catubbhi is historical and old (Mvastu. caturbhi). The archaic particle su (cp. Skr. svid) at Sn. 231b in the phrase tayas su dhammā is lost in Mvastu. (trayo 'sya); so is uda (cp. Vedic uta) at Sn. 232b replaced by atha. The enclitic no in the phrase na no samam atthi is perhaps dialectical (Mvostu. tam). Similarly pronouns ye and ne at Sn. 223cd are not only lost in Mvastu. but the corresponding lines there,

divam ca rātrīm ca haranti vo balim tasmāddhi nam raksatha apramattā (Mvastu. I. 294)

are grammatically wrong. The old Māgadhī nom. sg. in -e at Sn. 233a cannot be traced in Mvastu. which has the plural instead. The cpd. paramam hitāya is an old aluk-samāsa which has puzzled even the Commentator who explains the nasal as metri causa, (Pj. 1. 192). If that was so paramā (-ā contraction for -āya) which would suit the context better and has the same metrical value is to be expected here.

The style of the *sutta* is simple and the verses are quite vigorous. There are a few similes used e.g. the $inda-kh\bar{\imath}la^{24}$ at Sn. 229ab, the forest-grove in summer at Sn. 233ab, etc. Metaphor is not infrequent, e.g. $kh\bar{\imath}nab\bar{\imath}j\bar{a}$ at Sn. 235; etc. The heaping up of the attributes of the Buddha at Sn. 225a, 234ab may be a sign of a more developed style. The language is essentially the poetic diction.

The metre of the poem is Tristubh, but there are numerous metrical irregularities such as 17 $Jagat\bar{\imath}p\bar{a}das$, one instance of a $p\bar{a}da$ with caesura after the seventh syllable not being reckoned (Sn. 223a) and a contaminated $p\bar{a}da$ (Sn. 235b) enumerated by Helmer Smith. ²⁵

There are many points of doctrinal importance in this *sutta*. It is not possible to specify any of them as old or young, but certain trends are noticeable. Both old and more developed concepts lie side by side. *Mettā* has already been discussed (*Sn.* 223b). The categorical statement that the Buddha, Dhamma and the "uninterrupted *samādhi*" are unique (*Sn.* 224c, 225c, 226c) shows signs of a developed lore. There is an elaborate theory almost amounting to a dogma discussed in *Sn.* 227-232. These verses are quite valuable in tracing the Arahant-ideal in Buddhism. ²⁶ Most of what is stated here is found in the older parts of the Canon; yet

^{23.} A. V. huruk> Brāh. huras> P. huram (with -am the standard adverbial termination formed after the acc. sg. of nt. nouns). Cp. hurāhuram at Dh. 334, Th1. 339, etc. Mvastu. has parasmin in place of huram.

^{24.} S.v. PTS. "The post, stake or column of Indra, at or before the city gate; also a large slab of stone let into the ground at the entrance of a house". Pj. I. 185: Nagara-dvāravinivāraņattham ummarābhantare aṭṭha vā dasa vā hatthe paṭhaviṃ khaṇitvā ākotitassa sāradārumayatthambhass' etam adhivacanam.

Op. cit. (SnA. 683 ff).,
 Vide Miss I. B. Horner, Early Buddhist Theory of Man Perfected.

there appears a slight departure in the method of presentation. The basic tenet of the arivasaccāni occurs at Sn. 229d and 230a. The eight puggalas (individuals) culminating with the Arahant are mentioned (Sn. 227ab) and there is a probable link with yoga in the phrase suppayuttā (Sn. 228a.—in perfect control). It is emphasised that these puggalas will not enter an eighth existence (Sn. 230d). Further evidence for the development of the concept Arhant is to be seen in Sn. 231 where it is stated that the individual (belonging to one of these eight categories) has abandoned sakkāyaditthi "heresy of individuality", vicikicchā "perplexity" and sīlabbataparāmāsa "the observance of diverse vows and ascetic practices". These three concepts represent a somewhat developed phase. As opposed to vicikicchā is saddhā which signifies a religious aspect rather than a moral relation. The "contagion" of various silas and vatas may perhaps refer to various types of Brahmanical and other ritual. There also occurs a minor dogma (not found in Mvastu.) at Sn. 231e. If these two lines do not belong to a later stratum than the rest of the poem, the term abhithānāni may also indicate general lateness. The six grievous offences include the five anantarika kammas and aññasatthār'uddesa (pesiting another teacher—cp. micchāditthi). The latter was probably added to the earlier list of five with the arising of a growing rivalry between the Sangha and the members of other sects.' Further attributes of the Arahant occur at Sn. 232. Although Arahants are mentioned in the earlier part of the Canon and arahatta is a familiar concept, the sutta definitely reveals a development in the theory of the Arahant. The centre of gravity has already shifted from the muni to the "perfect being". This is the outcome of a widespread monastic organisation as opposed to the "lonely wanderers" of the older ballads.

External evidence—A parallel version of this sutta occurs at Mvastu. I. 290 ff. As stated earlier the two versions in Pali and BSK. may be traced to a common source with different recensions rather than one being based on the other. The evidence discussed above shows that the sūtra in Mvastu. is relatively younger than the Pali. Though doctrinally the Pali version depicts comparatively developed phase of Buddhism, linguistic and external evidence debars one from assigning a very late date. A passage found at Divy. 340 throws considerable light on both versions of the sutta. It runs; Ayuṣmaā Sangharaksiteha Nagaropamaṃ sūtraṃ upanikṣiptaṃ gāthāṃ ca bhāṣate,

Yāniha bhūtāni samāgatāni sthlāni bhāmyām athavāntarīkse kurantu maītrīm satatam prajāsu. divā ca rātrau ca carantu dharmam

The Nagarūpama Sutta at A. IV. 106 ff. has no connection whatsoever with the verse quoted, nor with Mvastu. I. 290 ff. The stanza may be compared with v. 15 of the sūtra in Mvastu. (I. 294), lines ab of v. 2 (Mvastu. I 290) and Sn. 222ab, 223bc. The same idea is found at Brh. I. 4, 29 and IV. 3, 43. It is not very probable that Divy. 340 quotes from Mvastu. or Pali. On the other hand, it may perhaps be attributed to some source which may have been connected with the original version of the sutta. The other probability is that the opening verses of the Ratana Sutta and the corresponding gāthās of Myastu. have drawn upon this stanza, which may have originally belonged to some other section which in all probability was the Nagaropama Sūtra mentioned in Divy. (and not the sutta bearing that name at A. IV. 106 ff.) This sutta seems to have consisted of general advice given in the form of an address made to the bhūtas, for, the second line inculcates the practice of maitrī and dharmacaryā. There is another reference to the Triad of Ratanas at Divy. 481, in the form of a salutation (namo ratnatrayāya), which merely shows that a conception of such a triad was familiar to the editor of that section of Divy.

Indirect evidence—Internal evidence and all available external evidence show that the *sutta* is comparatively late. It is also found to be decidely later than the *Muni*-Ballads of *Sn*. It has been observed earlier that subsequent additions are normally made to canonical works by appending them either at the head of a section or at the end of it. The *Ratana Sutta* is clearly an addition made to the *Culla Vagga*, after a *vagga* as such had been formed. Evidence of this nature is not helpful in determining dates of *suttas*, but on the other hand, it is an invaluable source of information in tracing the growth of the various works. It is also useful as a confirmatory test to what has already been discovered from other sources.

Conclusion—The supposition that the opening stanzas of the sutta in Sn. are based on a sutta which is now lost leads to the natural inference that the Ratana Sutta is of a rather composite nature, being built up of various elements at different periods. Though there is no conclusive evidence forthcoming to establish the tradition, a comparison of the two versions of the sutta in Pali and BSk and an analysis of its contents have shown that this is true to some extent. Generally speaking, parts I and III (supra) have been observed to be on a different level from the rest of the poem; and parts IIa and IIb on two separate levels. Doctrinal evidence has shown that the two additional padas Sn. 231gh are considerably late; and similarly the short stanza Sn. 234 which gives a categorical list of attributes of the Buddha appears to be later than the longer stanzas occurring immediately before and after it.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

N. A. Jayawickrama

THE YAKKHA BALLADS

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ALTHOUGH the three Suttas, Hemavata, Ālavaka and Sūciloma are fundamentally similar in that they are riddle-poems resembling the Yakṣa Praśnas of the Mahābhārata, the Hemavata Sutta demands special attention on account of its extraordinary length and the difference it bears to the other two in details. Unlike the other two suttas it contains no prose introduction and its principal characters Sātāgira and Hemavata are represented as friendly beings whereas the two yakkas Āļavaka and Suciloma are no more than mere demons. All the three suttas are dialogue-ballads, but the dialogue consists of only one question and an answer to it in the Sūciloma Sutta, while there are only two characters in the Āļavaka Sutta. The dramatic element is quite pronounced in the Hemavata Sutta, and the Āļavaka Sutta is not devoid of it.

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Hemavata Sutta

The sutta begins as a conversation between Sātāgira, "the dweller on the Sāta Hill in Majjhimadesa", and Hemavata, "the Himalayan Sprite". When the former succeeds in convincing the latter of the virtues of the Buddha, they visit him, and Hemavata who plays the role of the questioner throughout the poem asks the Buddha questions. The two yakkhas are delighted with his answers: they extol him and, along with their followers, seek his refuge.

The sutta may be divided into three parts, viz: (i) Sn. 153-167, the dialogue between the two yakkhas, (2) Sn. 168-175, the dialogue between Hemavata and the Buddha, (3) Sn. 176-180, the conclusion which consists of an exaltation of the Buddha.

Part I. When Sātāgira invites Hemavata to visit Gotama, the latter asks him whether Gotama possesses various qualities, which Sātāgira in his answers affirms. All the virtues of the Buddha which are enumerated in this dialogue may equally well be attributed to any sage. Even the

1. Āļavaka: "of the forest", from atavi, forest; Sūciloma: "needle-haired".
2. SnA. 197. W. Stede suggests that Sātāgira may be a variant for Sātāgila, a secondary form of Satagila "swallowing a hundred". He further suggests that Nālāgiri stands for Naragila.

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few stanzas which are meant to describe the personal attributes (Sn. 165-167) lay emphasis on his ascetic life and not his person. In fact the whole poem emphasises the conduct ($cariy\bar{a}$) and the spiritual attainments of the Buddha (the word used is citta—the mind). The Buddha at most here is a perfect muni and is not spoken of in the grandiloquent terms that usually accompany a developed phase of Buddhism.

Part II. Hemavata asks a question which may be interpreted as being of consmological or cosmogonical import, as it vaguely touches upon the ādi and anta of the universe (Sn. 168). The Buddha gives a cryptic answer from a teleological standpoint, but does not enumerate nor specify what groups of six he alludes to (Sn. 169). In answer to the next question in which the yakkha shows that he has understood the allusions to the āyatanas the Buddha mentions the pleasures of the five senses and the mind as upādāna (grasping) as the sixth and states that their abandonment leads to emancipation from misery (Sn. 171-172). The yakkha then asks the nature of the person who crosses the Flood (ogha—Sn. 173) and the Buddha describes the virtuous sage who has gained spiritual attainments and "does not sink into the deep". (Sn. 174).

Part III. The two yakkhas praise the Buddha (Sn. 176-177) and compliment themselves for having taken the opportunity of visiting him (Sn. 178). They along with their 1,000 followers seek his refuge (Sn. 179) and make a solemn pledge to honour the Buddha and the Dhamma (no Sangha is mentioned) in all their wanderings (Sn. 180). Even here the epithets used of the Buddha are those of the perfect sage.

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The language of the sutta is the standard poetical Pali. There are many poetical expressions as divyā ratti (Sn. 153b), anomanāmam (Sn. 153c, 177a), saṃsuddhacāraṇo (Sn. 162b, 163b), khīṇavyappatho (Sn. 158b: Comy, khīṇo vācāya patho cp. Sn. 1076d: vādapatha) and vyappatha (Sn. 163Ab, 163Bb, 164b, cp. vyappathayo Sn. 961a). The frequent use of the interrogative particle kacci expressing doubt (18 times) and the disjunctive indeclinable atho (7 times) is very striking. Though the indic. 3 sg. āha (Sn. 158c) is the normal Aor. (pf.) 3 sg. it is used here in the present tense as in several other old suttas.

The syntax if the verses is generally straightforward, but there are a few instances of ellipsis; e.g. Sn. 168, 169. The Comy. correctly takes kismim at Sn. 168abd³ as locative in one or other of its basic meanings

and equates it in the first pāda to kismim uppanne and in the fourth pāda to kismim sati. The explanation of chassu in the corresponding stanza (Sn. 169) is similar.

As regards style the sutta stands out as a highly dramatic piece. Like

As regards style the sutta stands out as a highly dramatic piece. Like many other similar ballads this too was probably sung on suitable occasions, three different reciters singing the stanzas ascribed to each of the characters. The poems appears to be divided into two separate scenes, for the dialogue between the two yakkhas takes place at one place and their conversation with the Buddha at a different place. Except for a few occasional poetical flashes the style invites no comments. There are two highly descriptive passages in the sutta, viz. Sn. 165-167, 176-180. The simile sīham v'ekacaram (Sn. 166a) is reminiscent of numerous others of lonely wanderers (vide Khaggavisāna Sutta). The repetition of the same words at Sn. 163A, 163B and 164 is due to a subsequent expansion probably effected in Burma.⁴

The group of six indicating a set of phenomena need not necessarily be late, and the contents show that the reference is to the āyatānas, an early concept in Buddhism. The grouping of epithets at Sn. 167, 176, 177 is to be generally regarded as a sign of lateness, but the absence of any indication of a developed Buddhology attributing supernormal qualities shows that these verses may still be old. There are no indications of these verses being later than the rest of the poem.

Metre. The Anustubh ślokas of the poem are interrupted by two stanzas in Tristubh (Sn. 176, 177). The repertory phrases (iti Sātāgiro yakkho, etc.) which the Comy. attributes to the sangītikārā (SnA. 193) do not fall within the metre. The break in the metre may perhaps indicate that the two stanzas in Tristubh were borrowed from elsewhere; but the full stanza Sn. 176 has not yet been traced to any other work, though three of its individual pādas are seen to occur frequently in other metrical works.⁵ On the other hand Sn. 177 occurs at S.I. 38 (cp. Sn. 153). Yet, the composite nature of the Sagathaka Vagga of the Samyutta does not warrant the inference that Sn. has borrowed this from there. There is no doubt that these stanzas are old. The fact that they are written in the historically older Tristubh is further proof of their antiquity. However, it may still be probable that these two stanzas were interpolated from an earlier source. There are also a few metrical irregularities in the poem. Sn. 153 is in mixed Anustubh and Vaitāliya (the first pāda in Vaitālīva). Sn. 154a, 155a, contain nine syllables each instead of eight.

^{3.} SnA. 21off. kismim at Sn. 168a is explained as: bhāvena bhāvalakkhaņe bhummavacanam (being a condition, it is a locative denoting condition), at 168b: adhikaraṇatthe bhummavacanam (locative in the sense of relation—in time) and at 168d: bhāvena bhāvalakkhaṇa-kāraṇatthesu bhummavacanam (being a condition it is a locative characterising condition and denoting cause).

^{4.} Only Burmese Mss. and SnA. accept these two additional stanzas.

^{5.} Sn. 176a: Th. 1, 372; Sn. 176b: Vin. I, 36, Sn. 1059b, 1091d; Sn. 176c: D. III, 196, S.I. 4, 50, 51, Dh. 90 cp. Sn. 472c, 501b.

There are "even" $p\bar{a}das$ at Sn. 156a, 157a, 158a, 159a, and the cæsura is not marked in Sn. 176d and 177d.

Doctrinal Developments. The whole poem reflects a period when the *Muni*-ideal was the vogue in Buddhism. The emphasis of the poem on the conduct and mental discipline of the Buddha, the reference made to him as the ideal sage, the simple conception of the Buddha as opposed to what may be seen in later works, and the simplicity of the ideas in contrast with the dogmatism of the latter all point to the early date of the poem. The *sutta* is untarnished by any doctrinal colouring of a speculative nature.

In their application none of the terms shows any distinct growth. In supanihita (Sn. 154a, 155a, cp. 163Aa, 163Ba, 164a and the term padhāna) is found an idea parallel to yoga though the word itself does not occur here. Again, the yogin can be implied from Sn. 156d, 157d (jhānam na riñcati, also cp. terms satipatthana and bhavana). These ideas are old and were the common knowledge of all schools of contemporary Indian thought. Sn. 154b, 155b, 156b, 157b indirectly convey the idea of mettā. The concept of moha (Sn. 160c, 161c) may be compared with moha in the Bhagavadgītā (4, 35; 14, 13; 17; 22, etc.). It is essentially a state of mind unlike māyā which is more in the nature of a cosmic (or metaphysical) state found in association with the empirical world. The term dibba patha has already been commented on.7 The occurrence of the groups of six at Sn. 169 indicates the early classification of the ayatanas. They are mentioned later under the pañca kāmaguṇā and the mind (Sn. 171ab). The didactic element of the sutta is best judged from Sn. 174-175-two stanzas important from a teleological standpoint. The terms ogha and annava have been discussed elsewhere. None of the other terms that occur in this sutta calls for particular attention as they are used in all stages of the language.

Judging from internal evidence the sutta appears old. Its language shows no signs of lateness while there are no special forms which may be classed as very old. Its diction is the early poetical expression. The numerous pādas and stanzas of the second half of the poem (Sn. 163A, ff., i.e. at the end of the dialogue between the two yakkhas) which are in common with other metrical works suggests that that section of the poem has borrowed freely from an existing floating metrical literature. External evidence will be discussed after dealing with the internal evidence from the other two suttas.

Āļavaka and Sūciloma Suttas

The position of the Alavaka Sutta immediately after the Hemavata Sutta points to an attempt at an arrangement of suttas according to subject-matter. This has already been noticed in the remarks on the Vasala Sutta. However, there is no consistency in this matter, for the Sūciloma Sutta is placed in the next (Culla) vagga, after the Mangala Sutta. It is also significant that the four suttas (beginning with Farābhava) preceding Alavaka are parittas. Both the Sūciloma and Alavaka Suttas contain a prose introduction in which the two yakkhas are seen to intimidate the Buddha with identical threats. The Buddha's answer in both instances is the same. The first half of the introduction is somewhat different in the two suttas, and there is another yakkha, Khara, mentioned in the Sūciloma Sutta. In both instances the sutta proper begins with a question in verse, after the prelude in prose. The prose of these suttas is the canonical idiom, and therefore represents a later phase of Pali than the gāthās. 10 The Yakkha Samyutta (S.I., 206-215) contains both these suttas in identical words. 11 It is quite probable that that the prose introductions were appended to the gāthās during the time of the compilation of Sn. as an anthology, and that they were taken from, the legends in the Yakkha Samyutta though both works are dependent on an earlier tradition for the gāthās. In spite of the fact that Miln. 36 attributes Sn. 184 to Samyutta, both Yakkha Samyutta and Sn. are collections made from earlier existing material.

The Alavaka Sutta¹² contains a series of questions and answers (Sn. 181-190) followed by an epilogue in verse (Sn. 191-192) whereas the Sūciloma Sutta ends with the Buddha's answer to the question at Sn. 190. An examination of the former shows that Sn. 190 forms a suitable conclusion to the sutta when the line, so 'ham ajja pajānāmi yo attho samparā-yiko indicates the questioner's complete satisfaction with the answers he has received. The tone of the epilogue appears totally different from that of the rest of the poem, and resembles that of some of the concluding verses of the Thera-gāthās or the later Apadānas. The only connection of the poem with the Ālavaka-legend is in the phrase, Ālavim āgamā at Sn. 191b. The fact that this sutta is perhaps later than the preceding stanzas is also suggested by the statement, yattha dinnam mahapphalam (line d) which stands at a much lower level than the previous statement

^{6.} Helmer Smith, Metres of the Sutta Nipāta, SnA. II, 3.

^{8.} Vide E. M. Hare, Woven Cadences, p. 189 and Otto Franke, ZDMG.

^{9.} PBR 2, 2, p. 88.

^{10.} Vide PBR.

^{11.} Āļavaka Sutta at S.I, 213-215; Sūziloma at S.I, 207-208.

^{12.} The events connected with the Alavaka Sutta are placed in the sixteenth year after Enlightenment—E. J. Thomas, *Life of the Buddha*, p. 119.

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at Sn. 190cd. It appears quite irrelevant that the vakkha should realize that the Buddha is an ideal puññakkhetta, when he should be thankful for the exposition of his questions. Sn. 192 occurs at Ap. 6, 152; 415, 17 and various commentaries; and its tone appears decidedly late. It is highly probable that Sn. 190 formed the original conclusion of the gāthās and that the epilogue was a later addition concurrent with the identification of these gāthās with the Ālavaka-legend.

The two opening stanzas of the Sūciloma Sutta (Sn. 270-271) consist of a question and an answer. Like the two opening stanzas of the Alavaka Sutta they are Tristubhs; the first two stanzas of Hemavata's dialogue with the Buddha are also in Tristubh (Sn. 168-169). Questions and answers of this nature are found in a section of the Devatā Samyutta (S.I. 36-45); and further, two of the above passages occur there: viz: Sn. 168-169 at S.I. 41 and Sn. 181-182 at S.1. 42. The occurrence of these stanzas in the Samvutta, independently of the rest of the respective poems suggests the existence of a set of riddles dealing with Buddhist topics prior to their being incorporated in longer poems. 13 Unlike the Alavaka Sutta, the Sūciloma Sutta seems to have been built upon one such riddle though Sn. 270-271 have not been traced as an independent piece. The third stanza in Anustubh is an explanatory verse on the answer to the riddle. The general appearance of a sutta is given by the addition of the concluding stanza. It is obvious that many Pali poems have incorporated earlier existing material, but Sūciloma Sutta appears totally different as it is evident that it is built on the framework of the riddle. The four gāthās as a whole, appear old, but on the basis of this argument Sn. 270-271 are older than the other two.

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The language of the suttas is considerably old; and the \bar{A} lavaka Sutta preserves many dialectical as well as old historical forms. The phrase mittāni ganthati (Sn. 185d, 187d) preserves the historical gender of mitta, lalthough in Pali the word is masculine. The idiom itself is perhaps Vedic or post-Vedic rather than Classical Sanskrit or Pali. The word sussūsā is to be taken as a shorter inst. sg. (Vedic) and not as a contraction of the Pali sussūsāya. There is a Vedic ppr. in saddahāno (cp. śrad-dadhāna —Sn. 186a); there are dialectical forms as ingha and bhiyyo (Sn. 189—also in prose). The particle of interrogation su is frequently added to the interrogative pronouns to emphasise the question, as is characteristic of old gāthā-Pali (cp. Epic sma). Other old forms are: agent noun utthātā (Sn. 187b) and imp. 2 sg. Atp. pucchassu (Sn. 189a). There are hardly any peculiar forms in the Sūciloma Sutta. The forms kutonidānā, kutojā (Sn. 270), itonidānā, itojā (Sn. 271) are common poetical forms. The reading dhamkam (crow) should be preferred to vankam (see also SnA. 303).

Style. Both suttas are dialogue-ballads, but the dialogue is more pronounced in the Alavaka Sutta. The moral truths are stated expressively in a series of questions and answers in clear and simple language (cpthe opening stanzas of Bhg. VIII). The sutta lends itself to easy dramatization on account of its being well punctuated by the words of the two interlocutors. The concluding stanza (Sn. 192) like Sn. 179-180, enhances its dramatic effect. The Sūciloma Sutta, though short, is more ornate than the other. It contains three similes viz. Sn. 270d-271d, 272b, 272d; and the stanza Sn. 271 is rather cryptic.

Metre: The break in metre in the two poems has already been noted (supra). Although Tristubh is historically older than Anustubh śloka, it in itself provides no useful data. As observed earlier, the occurrence of one of these Tristubh passages (Sn. 181-182) at S.I. 42 and a similar passage (Sn. 168-169, though in Anustubh śloka) at S.I, 41 along with many other similar questions and answers, in the Devatā Samyutta, may presuppose the early existence of a traditional riddle-literature independent of longer suttas. The disparity in metre is therefore due to the fact that some of these passages are either incorporated in, or utilised to build up (as in the case of the Sūciloma Sutta) longer poems. The two opening stanzas of both suttas, thus appear to have belonged to an altogether different stratum from the rest of the two poems. Metrical irregularities are almost absent in the Anustubh ślokas (Sn. 184-192, 271). There are two instances of even quarters at Sn. 186a and 187a. Of the Tristubh stanzas (Sn. 181-182, 270-271, 273) Sn. 270b-271b are irregular. Besides containing anacrusis, the caesura after the seventh syllable is not reckoned in them.¹⁴. There are two instances of metrical lengthening. viz. āvahāti (Sn. 181b-182b) and larati (Sn. 183a-184a). The lengthening in $s\bar{u}$ 'dha (Sn. 182a) is due to sandhi.

Doctrinal Evidence: Notwithstanding a few words with a semi—or quasi-technical significance, such as ogha, annava, appamāda, viriya and paññā (Āļavaka), rāga and dosa (Sūciloma), the two suttas are marked by a total lack of metaphysical thought. The simplicity of ideas and the emphasis laid on saddhā shed some light on the antiquity of the Alavaka Sutta. The popular character of the whole poem is also seen

^{13.} The tradition preserved in the Devatā Samyutta may perhaps be synchronous with a floating riddle literature which was the predecessor of Sanskrit riddle poetry. Also vide Winternitz, History of Indian Literature, I 352 on old riddle poetry.

^{14.} Helmer Smith, ibid.

from the occurrence of the word idha (here, on earth) in saddh'idha (Sn. 182a). The popular teachings embodied in the sutta (in Sn. 188-189) which state the four fundamental qualities sacca, dhamma—or dama, dhiti—or khanti, and cāga, requisite of a devout householder) are reminiscent of the *Dharmaśāstras* and other allied branches of Sanskrit literature. The practice of one's dharma, truthfulness, discriminate living, diligence, energy, wisdom, desire to learn, doing what is correct, tenacity and perseverance all contribute to help a person to reap the benefits of learning, fame, wealth, acquisition of friends, etc. These teachings were accepted by all schools alike as Sn. 189 points out. The answer to the important question of teleological significance (Sn. 183) emphasises the role saddhā plays in popular Buddhism. As the contents show, this sutta dealing with popular teachings appears old and seems to have drawn freely from the fund of old Indian knowledge. The Sūciloma Sutta which deals with detachment from passions is particularly more Buddhistic than the other. Though the sutta itself is too brief to draw any inference on doctrinal grounds, it has the general appearance of an old piece (specially Sn. 270-271). The poem as a whole may not be of very great antiquity, but the two opening verses, for reasons discussed above. are at least as old as the Hemavata and Alavaka Suttas.

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The Yakkha-legend (Alavaka)

The following observations on the yakkha-legend shed some light on our suttas. The Commentary connects the story of Alavaka with that of Sätägira and Hemavata (SnA. 221ff,). When the two yakkhas Sätägira and Hemavata were on their way to Jetavana in order to pay their respects to be Buddha before proceeding to the assembly of the yakkhas, they found it impossible to pass over Alavaka's abode. On investigating the cause they found the Buddha there, saluted him, listened to the dhamma and continued their flight to their final destination. A similar story is found at UdA. 64 when they passed the abode of Ajapālakavakkha. In this story is seen a popular attempt, however late it may be, to link up the various yakkhas with one another. The legend of Alavaka occurs in similar words at SA. 317ff. in the commentary on the sutta in the Yakkha Samyutta. A summary of the same legend occurs at AA. 389ff. in the comments on Hatthaka Alavaka, a prince who is said to have been saved from the yakkha's hands. 15 The story itself has much in common with the circle of legends grouped by Watanabe¹⁶ under the

16. JPTS., 1909-1910, pp.240ff.

title Kalmāṣapāda Stories. The essential links are: (1) the man eating yakkha, (2) the captured king who obtains his freedom by promising to provide the yakkha with food, and the sanctity of that promise, and (3) the conversion of the yakkha. This similarity to the Kalmāṣapāda group is sufficient proof of the antiquity of the Āļavaka-legend. 17

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External Evidence

There are sufficient references in the Canon to most of the yakkhas who are represented as taking part in these dialogues. Hemavata and Sātāgira are included in the list of great yakkhas whose protection should be sought when troubled by other yakkhas. Their names represent a class of yakkhas (probably their followers) in the Mahāsamaya Sutta. Cha sahassā Hemavatā yakkhā. . . and Sātāgirāti sahassā yakkhā (D. II, 256) may be contrasted with Ime dasasatā yakkhā at Sn. 179 which speaks of a following of 1,000 instead of a total of 7,000.

The occurrence of the Alavaka and Sūciloma Suttas in identical words, in the Yakkha Samyutta has already been mentioned. Besides this the statue of Sūciloma which is found at the Bharhut Stūpa along with those of many other yakkhas is a fair land-mark indicating the early acquaintance with all these yakkhas. There is no doubt whatsoever that all these yakkhas were known, as seen from the references in the Pali Canon, long before the time of Bharhut, yet the Stūpa itself is helpful in determining the lower limit of the date of these legends.

No remarks need be made here on the concept yakkha, the part yakkhas play in Indian literature or the origin of the yakkha-cult. These questions have been exhaustively dealt with by scholars like A. K. Coomaraswamy (Yaksas), W. Stede (Gespenster geschichten des Peta Vatthu; and s.v. P.T.S.), Dela Vallée Poussin (Indo-Européens et Indo-Iraniens; L'Inde jusque vers 300 av. J.C.), O. H. de A. Wijesekera (U.C.R. I, 2) etc. It is also of no importance to investigate further the Commentarial accounts linking up the legends of various yakkhas. The question to be solved is how these yakkhas came to be associated with the gāthās in Sn. As hinted at earlier, the suttas may be analysed roughly into four different strata: (1) riddles which perhaps preceded the rest of the suttas (Sn.

17. Malalasekera, D.P.P.N. (s.v.).

^{15.} In the list of *etad-aggas* at A.I, 26 he is called the most pre-eminent of those who cherish the assembly with the four *sangaha vatthu* (bases of generosity).

^{18.} D. III, 204-205; Ātānāţiya Sutta. Cp. the statement at SnA. 197, Hemavata-Sātāgirā aṭthavīsati yakkha-senāpatinam abbhantarā mahānubhāvā yakkharājāno ahesum.

^{19.} Cunningham, The Stūpa of Bharhut. He assigns the date of the Stūpa as 250-200 B.C. (p. 14): The inscription under Sūciloma is Sūciloma-yakho (p. 136 and plate XXII). Also vide Coomaraswamy, Yakşas, I. p.5.

168-169, 181-182, 270-271), (2) the poems incorporating the riddles (Sn. 153-167, 168-178, 181-190), (3) The concluding stanzas of the suttas (Sn. 179-180, 191-192), or the comment in verse Sn. 272 and the conclusion Sn. 273 and (4) the prose.

The fact that no reference whatsoever is made to yakkhas in parts 1 and 2 (except in the repertory phrases which the Commentator attributes to the sangītikārā—SnA. 193) may probably indicate that these poems were at one stage quite independent of yakkhas. Internal evidence has shown that the concluding stanzas bear signs of lateness. The identification of these suttas with the various yakkhas is simultaneous with the inclusion of these stanzas in the poems. The number of followers of Hemavata and Sātāgira mentioned at Sn. 179 being less than that in the Mahāsamaya Sutta one is prevented from assigning a very late date to the concluding stanzas, for presumably the number mentioned in the latter points to a more developed legend. The introductions in typical canonical prose are definitely of a much later stratum than the gāthās. From the evidence at hand it is not possible to determine specifically when these successive additions were made. The internal evidence is very convincing that the gathas in parts 1 and 2 belong to an older stage than the rest of the respective suttas. It is quite probable that the prose (like many other prose passages in Sn.) was taken from outside (in this case the Samyutta) at the time of the final collation of Sutta Nipāta as an anthology.

THE PASTORAL BALLADS

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Dhaniya Sutta

THE Dhaniya Sutta consists chiefly of a dialogue between the rich herdsman Dhaniya and the Buddha. A third interlocutor (Māra) appears towards the end of the sutta, and the narrator himself interrupts the dialogue by describing the scene at Sn. 30.20 The recitation of the ballads may have proceeded on a line quite similar to the dialogue in the (later) medieval European Miracle Play. The dramatic element predominates in the sutta and the possibility of different reciters singing the respective stanzas attributed to the various characters has been suggested earlier.²¹ It may be said that more definite signs of dramatic representation are seen in the sudden appearance of Mara voicing the popular opinion (Sn. 33, 34). At the same time doubts may be cast on the genuineness

of these two stanzas; for, firstly Sn. 32 appears to be a suitable conclusion to the poem when the herdsman and his wife pledge to practise the holy life; secondly, the recurrence of these two stanzas in totally different contexts at S.I., 6 and 107-108²² suggests that they belonged to a stock of traditional twin-verses, best represented by the Sagāthaka Vagga of the Samyutta and the Yamaka Vagga of the Dhammapada; and finally, the greater metrical perfection indicating them as distinct from the rest of the stanzas may also point to a difference in the date of composition. Although this is no conclusive proof, it may be surmised with some degree of accuracy that these two stanzas were a subsequent interpolation.

The sutta is mainly a poetical duel between the two chief interlocutors, "the one rejoicing in his worldly security and the other in his religious belief". 23 In the alternating stanzas which are highly artistic the Buddha invariably uses the very words of the herdsman either to express the exact opposite or to give a new value to them. Sometimes even the same sounds are reproduced with identical metrical value but expressing something totally different, e.g. Sn. 18a, 19a pakkoduno duddhakhīro: akkodhano vigatakhīlo. The opposite ideas are expressed in Sn. 18c, 19c with a different connotation for the words repeated viz. channā kuți āhito gini: vivatā kuți nibbuto gini.24 Sometimes the words in the corresponding stanzas differ considerably, though in each case the speaker makes a statement to illustrate his point of view, e.g. Sn. 20, 21. The contrast is shown only in the topics discussed in Sn. 22, 23, i.e. gopī and cittam respectively. The Buddha is seen playing on the word bhata when Dhaniya says that he is self-supporting (Sn. 24, 25). The next stanza of the Bhagavā is a mere negation of the herdsman's statement. When Dhaniya speaks of tethering his animals the Buddha declares that he has broken all bonds (bandhanāni) and will not seek birth again. Another pair of alternating stanzas concludes the poem when Buddha categorically denies the tempting words of Māra (Sn. 33, 34).

Language and Syntax

Proceeding on to an examination of the internal evidence, language calls for attention first. The sutta contains many archaic and poetical forms.

^{20.} Vide SnA. 42.

^{21.} PBR 1, 2, p. 90.

^{22.} In the former instance the stanza is attributed to a devatā, and in the latter to Māra.

Fausböll: Translation of the Sutta Nipāta, SBE. Vol. X. p. 3.
 The Commentary (Sn.A. 31) says that kuṭī refers to the body; kuṭī ti attabhāvo. kāyo ti pi, guhā ti pi (Sn. 772), deho ti pi, sandeho ti pi (Th1. 20 Dh. 148) nāvā ti pi (Dh. 369), ratho ti pi (S. IV. 292), dhajo ti pi, vammiko ti pi (M.I. 144), kuti ti pi, kuikā ti pi (Th1, 1, etc.) vuccati.

There occur several special poetical compounds as pakkodano, duddhakhiro (Sn. 18a,) akkodhano, vigatakhīlo (Sn. 19a), and samānavāso (Sn. 18b, cp. samāniyā, Sn. 24b). The lengthening in patthayasī in the refrain is partly archaic and partly metrical. Besides this there are other archaic verbal forms such as vijjare (Sn. 20a, cp. haññare, bhāsare, etc. and Vedic śére and īśire> Pkr. -ire> P. -are, vide Geiger, 122.2); sakkhinti (Sn. 28c) historical future from \sqrt{sak} , sak-sya-> *sakkhya-> sakkhi- with samprasārana; and other historical forms as upessam (future, Sn. 29c), pāvassi (Aor., Sn. 30b), abhāsatha (Sn. 30d), addasāma (Sn. 31b), carāmase (Sn. 32b) and bhavāmase (Sn. 32d) which call for no particular attention. An interesting nominal form is gini (Sn. 18c, 19c) which is dialectical as well as archaic and perhaps poetic. This form probably comes from a dialectical stratum. The initial vowel has dropped off due to loss of accent. (Vedic agni>P. aggi/ aggini/ gini, cp. ātmā>attā/ ātumā/tumā).25 Other noteworthy forms are: samvāsiyā at Sn. 22b, (diaeretic, cp. samāniyā, Sn. 24b), nibbitthena at Sn. 25b (adverbial inst.) and the sandhi usabho-r-iva with the introduction of the pseudo-organic-r; Skr, vṛṣabha-iva>P. usabho-iva, the deleted visarga is restored to bridge the hiatus. The word deva, in the refrain is used in the popular sense of cloud and the p.p. nibbuto (Sn. 19c) in its original meaning.

The syntax of the poem also shows that its language belongs to an early stratum of Pali. The free use of the genitive with the verb sunāti (e.g. tassā na sunami k iñci pāpaṃ—I hear no evil of her—Sn. 22c, cp. Sn. 24c, and sutva devassa vassato—hearing it rain—Sn. 30c) is an early construction. The predication of a plural subject with atthi is a poetic usage (Sn. 26, 27). The syntax of brahmacariyaṃ Sugate carāmase. (Let us practise the holy life under the Sugata—Sn. 32b) also strikes as belonging to old Pali. The nominal prefix anu-in anutīre (Sn. 18b, 19b) and the phrase, tinno pāragato expressing the early Buddhist concept of "crossing over to the Beyond" are old.

Style

A few remarks on the style of the *sutta* have already been made in the introduction. The poem stands out as a product of great literary skill and high poetic genius on the part of the composer. With a skilful use of words effecting as little change as possible in the alternating stanzas the author has been successful in illustrating the different points of view of the two interlocutors. The choice of words and expressions is very apt and lends a majestic air to the whole poem. The ballad is no mere versification unlike the artificial poetry of the late Ceylon Chronicles.

All the stanzas are very descriptive and the words of the herdsman paint a beautiful picture of a pastoral scene. Of equal merit is the stanza attributed to the narrator (Sn. 30). The refrain (occurring in Sn. 18-29) with the word deva for rain-cloud is very effective.

Simile, metaphor, world-play, alliteration and assonance and onomate-pocia are employed to some degree. Both the similes used at Sn. 29 reflect ideas quite familiar to other parts of the Canon (cp. Th1, 1184, Th2, 301. Ap. 60, 10 etc.). Most of the Buddha's answers to Dhaniya contain metaphors. E. M. Hare (Woven Cadences, pp. 218ff.) has pointed out word-play at Sn. 18a = 19a, 18b = 19b, 22a = 23a, and alliteration and assonance at Sn. 21a, 25abc, 28a, 29b and 33ab=34ab. An onomate-poeic effect is produced by phrases such as, $sutv\bar{a}$ devassa vassato (Sn. 30c), etc. In spite of the poetical devices employed there appear no signs of lateness in the language of the poem and there is much positive evidence to show that the poem is old.

Metre

The metre of the poem is not uniform, but it is evident that it follows the pattern of the Vaitālīya and Aupacchandasika—both metres of popular origin in which the syllabic instants are taken into account. Something definite can be said of only the two concluding stanzas which are in Vaitālīya (14, 16; 14, 16). Of the remaining stanzas the sum-total of morae in a half-stanza ranges from 29 (Sn. 30cd) to 37 (Sn. 28ab). Some of the pairs of stanzas in the main dialogue agree metrically; viz. Sn. 18, 19 contain 36, 30 morae each in their half stanzas, Sn. 20, 21; 32, 32 and 32, 31 morae respectively. Sn. 26, 27; 31, 32 morae in each: while there is a disparity in varying degrees in the others viz. Sn. 22, 23 in pādac c, only (16, 19, 16, 17; 16, 19, 13, 17 respectively), Sn. 24, 25 in pādas ac. (14, 18, 16, 17; 13, 18, 13, 17 respectively), and Sn. 28, 29 in all pādas except the refrain (17, 20, 17, 17; 15, 17, 18, 17 respectively).

In addition to Sn. 33 and 34, Sn. 32 can also be taken as a $Vait\bar{a}liya$ stanza with anacrusis in the $p\bar{a}da$ b, as pointed out by Helmer Smith²⁷. Sn. 20 consists of the number of syllabic instants required for the Aupac-chandasika metre and the rest of the stanzas contain either more or less morae than required for that metre. Other metrical irregularities already observed by scholars²⁸ are: anacrusis at Sn. 22b = 23b, 30b, trochaic $p\bar{a}da$ at Sn. 24a; and 26b = 27b containing a mora too short ($godharan\bar{a}yo$) for the Aupacchandasika metre. (Helmer Smith, ibid). The lack of uniformity in the metre of the poem supports the view that the writers

^{25.} Tumā < Vedic tman a by-form of ātmān.

^{26.} It is a petrified form even in canonical prose.

^{27.} SnA. 643.

^{28.} Ibid.

of these ballads have been mainly guided by rhythm and not fixed metres. Perhaps these stanzas mark the transition from the purely popular versification to the more fixed Vaitālīya and Aupacchandasik metres. This too is in agreement with the general antiquity of the poem.

Doctrinal Developments

No real developments in doctrine are in evidence in the *sutta*. The ideology of the poem conforms to that of Buddhism in its earliest phase. The various Buddhist concepts alluded to in the Buddha's replies to Dhaniya belong to early Buddhism, and therefore demand no particular attention. The only term with a technical significance is *upadhi* (substratum of rebirth—Sn. 33, 34) which is known from early Buddhist times, and is met with no less than 19 times in Sn. On doctrinal evidence the *sutta* appears to be considerably old.

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External Evidence

An interesting feature of the poem is that very few of its pādas in the main dialogue are to be met with in other metrical works, though the refrain occurs at Th1. 51-54, 325. On the other hand, the ideas in the sutta are common to other parts of the Canon as well. The various metaphorical allusions (e.g. to kuti, gini, bhisi, etc.) in the Buddha's replies, can be compared with the numerous similes and parables in other parts of the Canon²⁹; e.g. the simile of the kuţi at M.I., 190, Th1. 125 etc., bhisi cp. the parable of the raft (kulla) M.I., 134, etc. The whole of the sixth vagga of the Eka-nipāta of Th1. (Th1. 51-60) is connected with kuţi. The occurrence of Sn. 33, 34 at S.I. has already been discussed. The fact that the majority of the pādas in the main dialogue are not found repeated in other metrical works may suggest that these stanzas were quite distinct from the rest. Yet in contents they agree. Taking all the internal evidence (specially from language, syntax and metre) into account it may be said that these stanzas may have been anterior to the bulk of the Pali metrical works.

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Kasibhāradvāja Sutta

The other "Pastoral Ballad" Kasibhāradvāja Sutta is a regular ākkyāna containing narrative prose connecting the gāthās. The poem itself is a modified parable in which the Buddha explains the Dhamma to the

29. The Commentator gives an exhaustive list of similar occurrences (SnA. 31 11) which Helmer Smith has traced in the foot-notes.

ploughman by employing the terminology used by him. Though the gāthās consist of only a question and an answer to it, they fit into the general scheme of the narrative which is conducted entirely in prose. The prose which is both introductory and explanatory appears to have been used in order to acquaint the reader (or the listener) with the context of the verses, of which Sn. 76-80 form a separate unit (i.e. the Buddha as ploughman). Like all prose introductions to ballads, it is quite probable that at some early stage the prose of this sutta was not fixed. and that the singers of the ballads described the situation in their own words. The fact that the version of this sutta found at S.I., 172-173 (Brāhmaṇa-Saṃyutta) contains these gāthās verbatim, but shows a divergence in the prose³⁰ is in agreement with the unsettled nature of the prose. Further, the enhanced version of the conclusion in Sn. may be indicative of the relative lateness of the compilation of Sn. (as an anthology), for decidedly the shorter version in the Samyutta is the older of the two. The possibility of the existence of two recensions within the same Theravada School is very remote, and it is quite clear that both versions are based on the same tradition and that the sutta in Sn. is merely an enlargement of the same occurring in the Samyutta.

The formula-like phrases of the introduction and conclusion which agree word for word with all such passages in suttas dealing with conversions made by the Buddha, and the emphasis laid on the miracle as an ingredient to conversion exemplifying the consequence of the iddhipower of the Buddha (Sn. p. 15) rather than the teaching itself, are positive indications of the lateness of the prose of the sutta as contrasted with the gāthās. There occur a few irregular verbal forms in the prose which are of no great value here, as they are used in all periods of canonical Pāli; viz. dammi, an old form used in all periods (vide Geiger §143) cp. Epic Sk. dadmi; dakkhinti, future, cp. sakkhinti (vide Geiger §152), but has the appearance of an old (Vedic) injunctive³¹; and alatthat S-Aor.—all occurring in Sn. pp. 15-16. One is also struck by the frequent occurrence of imper. 2 sg. forms in -ssu (historical) and the wealth of denominatives in the passage describing the miracle.

The stanzas in the sutta are not very remarkable, and fail to reach the perfection of those of the companion poem, Dhaniya Sutta. Syntactically there appears nothing worthy of comment as the verses merely compare in a series of simple sentences, the counterparts in the religious life

31. *Vide*. Pischel §§525-6, 529, 532.

^{30.} Both introduction are identical. The prose passage after the fifth stanza (Sn. 80 runs: Bhuñjatu bhavam Gotamo, kassako bhavam Gotamo, yam hi Gotamo amatapphalan pi kasim kasatī ti. The concluding passage in S. begins with, Evam vutte Kasibhāradvāj brāhmano bhagavantam etad-avoca: Abhikkantam bho Gotama, etc. (Sn. p. 15, 11. 17 to I, 1. p. 16) and concludes: upāsakam mam bhavam Gotamo dhāretu ajja-t-agge pānupetam saraṇam gatan ti.

to the various implements and actions in ploughing. On the one hand, the absence of exact counterparts for some items in the similes (e.g. Sn. 78ab), and on the other, the mention of two for the same object (e.g. Sn. 77bd, paññā and sati) speak further of the lack of perfection of the poem.

The language of the verses is essentially gatha-Pali. Yet, archaisms are few. The only noteworthy forms are:—jānemu (Sn. 76d) cp. Pkr. jānimo and jānāmo, Sk. -mah>Pkr. -mo>P. -mu (vide Pischel §510); and dhuradhorayha (Sn. 79a), a peculiar double nominal form (dhura+ dhor-vahya s.v. P.T.S.). The sandhi in vuttir esā (Sn. 81d) is historical.

The metre of the poem is somewhat regular; Sn. 76-80 are Anustubh slokas and Sn. 81-82 are Tristubh. There is anacrusis at Sn. 79a and the caesura is not reckoned after the seventh syllable at Sn. 82d. Metrical lengthening is to be seen at Sn. 77c (hirī) and 81d (salī) in addition to instances like puññapekha; (Sn. 82d) for rhythm rather than metre. The style of the sutta has been sufficiently commented on earlier.

The ideology of the poem does not show any late developments. The emphasis is on the practical aspect and the attainment of deliverance through moral and intellectual discipline. Qualities like saddhā, tapo, pañña, hiri, sati, sacca, soracca, viriya and the control over mind, body and speech are accepted as virtues by all early Indian schools; yet the training envisaged in the sutta is essentially Buddhistic. There is neither speculation nor metaphysics, and the teaching, however tersely expressed, does not show any departure from what may be expected in the earliest teaching.

There are two terms which demand further attention; viz. yogakkhema (Sn. 79b) and kevalin (Sn. 82a). The technical significance of the former has come about by a direct semantic development from Vedic. In Vedic it meant "exertion and rest, acquisition and possession" (s.v. PTS), whereas in Classical Sk., "security, secure possession of what has been acquired, or insurance "as at Manu. IX, 219. According to the Petersburg Sk. Dictionary, it is usually explained as "gain and support of a possession" and at Gaut. 28, 46 it means "property destined for religious purposes". But all these ideas are remote from the Pali meanings. The non-technical meaning of "rest from work" in Pali, is nearer Vedic, and the idea of "freedom from bondage" is logically connected with the former. The term kevalin, which occurs as many as 7 times in Sn. is an epithet for the "perfect one". The idea itself is very familiar to the Canon even in such pharses as kevalaparipunnam, etc., though the concept is seen best developed in Jainism (cp. kevalin, the perfect one,

an epithet for tīrthankara, and kaivalva, epithet for nirvāna). The origin and conception of the idea is definitely pre-Buddhistic, but it need not be through any Jaina influence that its adoption has taken place in Buddhism.

The evidence from all these sources taken singly does not yield any definite data as regards the date of the poem, but taking the collective evidence the stanzas have a claim to comparative antiquity.

External Evidence

It has already been observed above that the sutta is an enlarged version of that found at S.I., 172. The additional prose passage found on p. 15 is seen to occur in the Sundarika Sutta at S.I., 167-168 though the Sundarikabhāradvāja Sutta in Sn. (III, 4) contains no corresponding passage. In order to establish the relationship of these two suttas, their common factor S_n . $81-82 = S_n$. 480-481, has to be taken into account. These two stanzas are repeated in three suttas in the Brāhmana Samyutta; viz. at S.I., 167 (Aggika-), I, 168 (Sundarika-), and I, 173 (Kasi-). This necessitates a comparison of these three suttas with the corresponding ones in Sn.32

In all the instances where the two stanzas Sn. 81-82 occur there is apparently sufficient justification for their inclusion, for the introductions state either that the Buddha was on his alms-round or that the brahmin was preparing an oblation. However, the stories contained in these three suttas show that at some stage or another there has set in a confusion of legend. Although it is not easy to say which sutta portrays the original version of the story, the influence of one on the other two is evident. It is significant that the section ending with Sn. 80, has very

The introductions to both versions of the sutta recording the conversation between the Buddha and Sundarikabhāradvāja are almost identical but only 5 of the 10 stanzas in S. have parallels in the 32 stanzas in Sn.; viz.; S. v. 1=Sn. 462, (v. 8), S. v. 2//Sn. 463 (v. 2ab=Sn. 463ab), S. v. 3//Sn. 459, 479 (v. 3bc=Sn. 459bc), S. v. 4-5 = Sn. 480. 481. The miraculous incident (//Sn. p. 15) is related at S.I., 168-169, following which occurs a set of 5 stanzas, both of which being absent in Sn. The conclusion is identical in both works. (Sufficient has been said of the Kasibhāradvāja Sutta, earlier).

^{32.} Aggika Sutta (S.I., 166-167) corresponds to, Vasala Sutta (pp. 142-151) which in Sn. bears the alternative title Aggikabharadvaja Sutta. The only noteworthy similarity of the two suttas lies in their respective introductions, though they differ widely in details. The nidana (scene of the sutta) in Sn. is Savatthi whereas it is Rajagaha in S. In both suttas the Brahmin is said to be preparing for a fire-sacrifice though it is stated in different words (Sn. p. 21, aggipajjalito hoti, āhuti paggahitā; S.I., 166, sappinā pāyāso sannihito hoti, 'aggim juhissāmi, aggihuttam paricarissāmi'ti). In Sn. the Brahmin abuses the Buddha whereas in S. he offers the pāyāsa (in verse) which the Buddha refuses with the stanzas Gāthābhigītam, etc. The stanzas in the two poems are entirely different though the phrase, na jaccā hoti brāhmaņo (S.I., 16632, Sn. 136b, 142b) is common to both. The concluding prose is the same.

little connection with the rest of the sutta, in the Kasibhāradvāja Sutta. The discourse ends there, and the line,

etam kasim kasitvāna, sabbadukkhā pamunccati, affords a fitting climax. Unlike the Sundarikabhāradvāja Sutta (both in S. and Sn.) the story is not centred on "what is left of the sacrificial cake" (havyasesa), which has a greater mysterious significance than pāyāsa (Kasi-), a thing mentioned only at this secondary stage. The difference in metre of Sn. 81-82 from that in the previous stanzas, and the uniformity in this respect, of all the stanzas (including these two) of the Samyutta version of the Sundarika Sutta (and to some extent the poem in Sn.) tend to emphasise the fact that Sn. 81-82 did not originally belong here.³³

In view of all this evidence, both internal and external, it may be concluded that (a), the sutta consists of two different elements (i) Sn. 76-80 with the prose introduction which at some stage was not in any fixed form, (ii) the two stanzas Sn. 81-82 and the prose on pp. 15-16 which constitute a subsequent addition, (b), the sutta has been greatly influenced by another sutta (probably the Sundarika Sutta of S.), the main theme of which was the exemplification of the miraculous powers of the Buddha, (c), the sutta in its present form has been included in Sn. at a date much later than that of the composition of the stanzas, and (d), the sutta probably is later than the Brāhmana Samyutta, if it has been influenced by the Sundarika Sutta.

^{33.} The Sundarika Sutta (S.) presents a more coherent narrative of the incident while the parallel version in Sn. is either an amalgamation of two suttas, one of which was based on the first 5 stanzas of the sutta in S. or an altogether different sutta which has incorporated a greater part of the legend i.e. without the miracle, as well the first five stanzas.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

N. A. Jayawickrama

THE NARRATIVE BALLADS

The Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas and the Vatthu-gāthā of Nālaka Sutta and Pārāyana Vagga and part of the epilogue to the latter can be classed as narrative pieces in Sn. In addition to these there are other isolated narrative verses (Sn. 30, 251-252, etc.), which the Commentator himself attributes to the saṅgītikārā. Out of these narrative pieces, the Vatthu-gāthā of the Pārāyana have been fully discussed in the general remarks on that vagga. An attempt will now be made at a more detailed examination of the Pabbajjā, Padhāna and Nālaka Suttas. A brief reference has already been made to them, and Winternitz's significant statement that they form the earliest beginnings of a life of Buddha in verse, has been noted. A little more has been said about these suttas in the general discussion on the Mahāvagga, and the arrangement of the suttas in it.

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Pabbajjā Sutta

The Pabbajjā Sutta1 is essentially a narrative ballad, which on account of the highly interesting dialogue it contains can be called a dialogueballad at the same time. The whole sutta is built upon the event of Bimbisāra's first meeting with the Buddha. The first three stanzas serve as an introduction to the narrative, which proceeds throughout in the 3rd person, and the other 17 (Sn. 408-424) constitute the body of the ballad. It will be noticed (later) that these introductory verses did not form an integral part of the poem. The dialogue-stanzas of the sutta are of a highly dramatic character. The narrative-stanzas interspersed with the dialogue, describe in successive stages the events leading up to the point when the respective characters represented in the sutta make their statements. It is not improbable that this poem was a regular dramatic ballad, in which the narrator recited the narrative stanzas while others sang the respective stanzas assigned to the various characters; for, in many respects the narrative verses closely resemble the prose narrative element in the regular "Akhyāna-ballads" of Sn. (e.g. Kasibhāradvāja Sutta); and the dialogue stanzas, the dialogue element in such suttas. The description of the change of scene and events enables the listener to follow the dialogue closely.

^{1.} The Commentary (SnA. 381) ascribes the sutta to Ananda.

From the analogy of the "Akhyāna-type" of mixed ballads it may be argued that only the dialogue (Sn. 410-411, 416, 420-424) formed the original ballad and that the narrative stanzas were merely a versification of earlier extant prose, which was perhaps like the narrative prose of some of the suttas in Sn. However, this cannot be established with any degree of certainty. Neither can it be said whether the poetical forms in the narrative stanzas are artificial forms based on the prose or not. Yet, in two instances (Sn. 406, 417-419) the narrative verses closely resemble the standard form of expression in prose canonical Pāli.² This coincidence is not a mere accident.

As regards the forms themselves in these narrative-stanzas they present no divergence from the normal gāthā-Pāli. Linguistic data suggest an earlier date for the dialogue-stanzas. The uniformity of metre (Anuṣṭubh Śloka) is perhaps due to the attempt on the part of the writer of the ākhyāna in verse to present a uniform ballad. The striking forms in the dialogue-stanzas are:—Sn. 410, bhonto, brahā the use of which is entirely restricted to poetry (s.v. PTS.), pekkhati; Sn. 411, the sandhi, nīcakulā-m-iva, which though inorganic is essentially old Pāli; Sn. 421, anīka of direct Vedic origin bhuñjassu, akkhāhi; Sn. 422, the adverbial usage of ujum which is archaic (v.l. ujū. cp. Mvastu. nija- which Neumann calls a misunderstanding of the old Pali) Sn. 423, kāme abhipatthayam (a) abhi construed with acc. (b) the old p. pr. in -am, Sn. 424, kāmesu. an historical construction belonging to old Pāli and daṭṭhu, irregular archaic absolutive.

There exists no early prose record of this incident. According to later tradition (SnA. 382 ff., J.I, 66 and DhA. I. 85) the meeting between Seniya Bimbisāra and Gotama took place prior to the Enlightenment. The reference made to him as the Buddha (Sn. 408a) and cakkhumā (Sn. 405b) need not imply any contradiction, for even prior to the Enlightenment Buddha may be spoken of in such terms by later writers. Yet, the reference here is to the personal Buddha. As a rule, the term as referring to the personal the Buddha was not very popular in the earliest portions of the Canon, where, invariably, he is called Bhagavā or Tathāgata. But its use as, "the Enlightened" or "the Awakened" is early, e.g. S.I. 35, 60, A. IV. 449, Sn. 622, 643, 646, etc. Besides this the occurrence

of the phrases, ākiṇṇavaralakkhaṇo (Sn. 408^d) and lakkhaṇasampannaṃ (Sn. 409^c) may be accepted as indicative of a certain amount of development in the concept of the Buddha. The nominal forms, pāsādasmiṃ (Sn. 409^b) and rājino⁴ (Sn. 415^d) apparently belong to a considerably late stratum of Pāli. All this evidence does not go to prove the lateness of the entire poem, but that probably the narrative verses may not be as old as the rest of the poem. This may still be maintained in spite of the general uniformity of the poem in many respects. It is clear that the event reported in this sutta took place prior to the Buddha's Enlightenment (vide Sn. 424^c) and that it was the first time that Bimbisāra met the Buddha. This is further attested to by the strong tradition preserved in the Nidānakathā of the Jātaka.

However, there are a few discrepancies in the poem. The occurrence of the term Buddha at Sn. 408 has already been discussed. It is to be noted that the version of this sutta in the Mahāvastu (Mvastu. II. 198 ff.) does not refer to him as the Buddha. Again according to the Pabbajjā Sutta, the Buddha had a following even at this stage—nāgasaṅgha purakkhato, Sn. 421. Neither Mvastu. nor the condensed version in the Nidānakathā makes any mention of a following or a saṅgha. In fact Sn. 420-421 are represented by only one stanza in Mvastu.,

Udagro tvam asi rājñaḥ aśvāroho'va selako| dadāmi bhogāṃ bhunjāhi, jātīṃ cākhyāhi pṛcchito||

It may be quite possible that in this instance Mvastu. preserves an older tradition while the two stanzas in Sn. indicate an expansion on a different line. This is further borne out by the strange resemblance of Sn. 420^{ab} to the oft-recurring prose formula, daharo hoti, yuvā susu kālakeso⁵ bhadrena yobbanena samannāgato...M. I, 82, D, I. 115, A, II, 22, III, 66, etc. Some of these apparent contradictions may be ascribed either to later accretions or to a confusion of the tradition at some early stage. The latter possibility is more plausible when all the other available evidence is taken into consideration.

Though both versions narrate the same event, the $P\bar{a}li$ and BSk. show definite signs of independent development from their original source, if such a version did exist. In the case of $P\bar{a}li$ this has been effected mainly by the association of the forms of expression and formulae pertaining to the standard prose idiom. Many of the discrepancies in evidence in Sn, can be thus explained on this basis. Two such instances have been

5. Also susukāļakeso which is explained by Commentaries as, 'with very black hair'.

^{2. (}a) Sn. 406 cp. M.I, 179, S.V. 350, A.II, 208, etc. sambādho gharāvāso rajā-patho, abbhokāso pabbajjā.

^{3.} The term Buddha occurs 39 times in the gāthās of Sn... As many as 25 refer to the personal Buddha, and the other 14 to Buddha in the impersonal sense. The term Sambuddha is met with 19 times.

^{4.} The only other occurrence of rājino in Sn. is at 209. in the Brāhmaṇadhammika Sutta. To say nothing of that sutta, but taking Sn. 299 independently, its comparative lateness is evident from the late word vipallāsa and the (late?) artificial nominal form vivākāram occurring in it.

noticed earlier (above). The three introductory stanzas are replaced by a brief prose sentence in Mvastu. which states that the Bodhisattva leaves Ārāda Kāļāma and repairs to Rājagrha. There is nothing corresponding to Sn. 413 in Mvastu. The number of instances in which the pādas of this stanza are seen to occur in other Pāli metrical works (Hare. p. 195) perhaps indicates a possible explanation for the presence of this stanza here. The stanza Sn. 416 is expanded into two verses in Mvastu. and Sn. 417 into three. The stanza corresponding to Sn. 418 in Mvastu. is totally different from the Pali which bears kinship with the prose formulae. Again, Sn. 424ab (cp. Th1, 458, Th2, 226, etc.) has no parallel in BSk. Though the dialogue between Bimbisāra and Buddha (Sn. 420-424) is found in a more condensed form in Mvastu., it does not end where it stops in Sn., but continues with two more stanzas in which Bimbisara solicits Buddha's promise to visit him after the Enlightenment.

The story in the Nidānakathā (J. I, 66) is not very helpful in the analysis of this sutta, as it is even posterior to SnA, which it mentions.⁶

Other internal evidence consists of an examination of the places mentioned in the sutta. Rajagaha was connected with Buddha's early career, and was one of the earliest centres of Buddhism. The peak Pandava was situated in the line of hills which formed a natural fortification to the city, giving it the name Giribbaja (see also DPPN). The Sākiyas are spoken of as a family of the Āditya clan inhabiting the Himālayan sector of Kosala. Legend has not yet grown round them making them an all powerful clan. They are merely a kula in Kosala. This too supports the general antiquity of the poem. However, the evidence at hand shows that the dialogue-stanzas preserve an older stratum than the narrative verses which betray signs of further development. It is quite probable that the three introductory stanzas which cannot be traced in Mvastu, were still later than the narrative verses. On account of the general consistency of the poem in language, metre, style and syntax it is not possible to say by what length of time these stanzas were separated; yet it must be agreed with Winternitz that this sutta is a precious remnant of the ancient ballad-poetry from which the epic of the life of Buddha developed.

Padhāna Sutta

The Padhāna Sutta appears to be foreshadowed in the last stanza of the Pabbajjā Sutta—padhānāya gamissāmi, (Sn. 424°). The two suttas are closely connected with each other, but in spite of Sn. 424° it is doubtful whether they aim at a connected narrative, though they ostensibly appear as such. In view of the changes that the Pabbajjä Sutta has undergone at editorial hands it may be surmised, though it cannot be established with certainty, that it served as an introductory sutta to Padhana in Sn. and that Sn. 424° was a mere coincidence. Mvastu. hardly throws any light on this, on account of the fact that the sūtra there, while preserving some of the primitive characteristics, also shows an expansion on a line different from that of Sn., and besides, some of the sections that are placed between the two suttas contain much irrelevant matter (such as jātakas). However, it is significant that the next sutta in Mvastu. deals with incidents following Buddha's departure to Uruvilvā leaving Udraka Rāmaputra. The pāda, padhānāya gamissāmi is common to both Pāli and BSk. (prahānāya gamişyāmi-Mvastu. II, 19918), and must necessarily be old, but it seems to have been partially responsible for the prefacing as it were, of the Padhāna Sutta with the Pabbajjā—besides taking into account the logical sequence of these two surviving ballads.

These two suttas represent but two of the major episodes in the eventful period of Buddha's early career, the one, at best being a record of Bimbisāra's first meeting with the Buddha, and hence be more appropriately termed "Bimbisarapratyudgama" (vide PBR 1, 3), while the other an allegorical representation in ballad-form, Buddha's conquest of evil. On the strength of the evidence from these two suttas alone, the relevant intervening incidents recorded in Mvastu., SnA., DhA., and Nidanakatha (J. I, 66), however late some of these accounts may be, cannot be all brushed aside as subsequent accretions in the course of development of the story of the Buddha. Although it is quite obvious that the later accounts are highly embellished versions of the life of the Buddha, the fact that only these two important events of the renunciation and the quest of peace by asceticism are preserved in the form of ballads, neither precludes the possibility of the early existence of more ballads of this nature, nor establishes that these suttas contain a complete record of Buddha's early sojourn as an ascetic. Yet, "the wholesome austerity" as pointed out by Chalmers (p. xix) evinced in these suttas gives them precedence over all other extant accounts.

^{6.} A comparison of the two is interesting merely from the point of view of tradition. In the Nidanakatha the dutas see the Buddha and inform the King, and it is they who speculate whether he is a deva, human being etc. . It is described how the Buddha loathed the meal he obtained by begging alms, and he finally ate it after self-admonition. Bimbisāra visits the Buddha and is impressed by his bearing-iriyāpathasmim pasīditvā -and offers him all comforts which the Buddha refuses. He finally solicits a promise from the Buddha to visit Magadha after the Enlightenment. Buddha then goes to Ālāra Kālāma, and Uddaka Rāmaputta and finally practises austerities—mahāpadhānam padahitukāmo mahāpadhānam padhānesi. Subsequent events are next recorded in the Nidanakatha.

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The Padhāna Sutta, like its companion poem, the Pabbajjā Sutta, is a narrative incorporating dialogue-stanzas. The occurrence of the 1st person in the opening stanza (Sn. 425^a—mam) cannot be reconciled with the 3rd person in the narrative at Sn. 429^{cd},

imā gāthā bhanam Māro atthā Buddhassa santike.

It has been correctly pointed out by Katre that mam is an error for nam, which has its antecedent at Sn. 408^a. The fact that this line has no exact parallel in Mvastu. makes the verification of Katre's suggestion rather difficult; and furthermore, the uniformity of the Pāli Mss. which read mam throughout shows that the "error" has set in at a very early stage. This confusion is also noticeable in Mvastu. though the exact parallels are not found there. (The account at Lal. 299 ff. is of no value as it offers no parallel to Sn. or any other Pali version). The opening stanza in Mvastu. reads, prahāņam prahitam mayā (II, 2384), but the narrative reverts to the 3rd person in the sixth stanza,

imām vācām bhane Māro, Bodhisattvasya santike.

This coincidence, besides establishing for certain the common origin of the two versions throws some light on the narrative element in this sutta. A glance at the sutta shows that it contains comparatively few narrative stanzas. (viz. Sn. 425, 426ab, 429cd 430ab and 449) as contrasted with Pabbajjā Sutta. The dialogue-stanzas at Sn. 425ab-429ab can be taken as forming three complete stanzas; thus;

- 1. Kiso tvam asi dubbanno, santike maranam tava, sahassabhāgo maranassa, ekamso tava jīvitam.
- Jīva bho, jīvitam seyyo, jīvam puññāni kāhasi, carato ca te brahmacariyam aggihuttam ca jūhato.
- 3. Pahūtam cīyate puññam, kim padhānena kāhasi. Duggo maggo padhānāya dukkaro durabhisambhayo.

Similarly Sn. 430^{cd} and 431 can conveniently form a stanza of six pādas like Sn. 434. (It is not possible to arrange Sn. 430^{cd}-434^{ef} into five stanzas without breaking up complete sentences and disturbing the harmony of the poem). It is quite probable that at some stage the sutta consisted of only the dialogue, the narrative stanzas being a versification of older prose. The presence of narrative verses in Mvastu. makes it quite clear that this has taken place at a very early stage. The confusion in the narrative may be ascribed to that same period.

The opening dialogue-stanzas quoted above are the words of Māra, and Buddha's reply commences at Sn. 430^{cd} and ends at Sn. 440. The next five stanzas are in the form of a soliloquy, and the end of Sn. 443 marks the complete defeat of Mara, while Sn. 444-445 constitute the "victorious resolution of the hero" (Katre). The next three stanzas representing Māra's acknowledgment of defeat appear to be a subsequent addition. They are not found in Mvastu.; but it is stated at S.I, 122 that Māra was on the Buddha's trail for seven years waiting for an opportunity to seizehim, but with no success-olārāpekkho, olāram alabhamāno. Later, in the same section (S. I, 124), he acknowledges defeat and utters the identical stanzas at Sn. 447-448. It is quite probable that Sn. 446 is a versification of a passage corresponding to that at S. I, 122 while the next two stanzas were perhaps taken from the same source as S. The final stanza of the poem (Sn. 449) roughly corresponds to that in Mvastu, and forms the narrator's conclusion.

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There is no doubt that the sutta is old, but the whole of it cannot be assigned the same antiquity. Some austerities practised by the Buddha are mentioned at M. I, 242 ff. Here the Buddha relates how he gradually gave up self-mortification and fasting. He took food in gradual quantities till he became strong again. The pañcavaggiyas left him saying, bāhuliko samaņo Gotama, padhānavibbhanto āvatto bāhullāya. ("The ascetic Gotama has swerved from his austerities and has reverted to a life of luxury"—M. I, 247, cp. M. I, 17-24, 114-118, 167, etc). Then he evolved the four jhānas and realised the three vijjās. There is no mention of Māra in the Majjhima account. S. I, 103 speaks of Māra as having visited

him when he was seated at the foot of the Ajapala banyan tree, after

attaining Enlightenment. Lal. devotes a whole section (Māradharṣaṇa-

parivartah-Lal. 299-343) to the Buddha's conquest of Māra. (S. I, 124

will be discussed later). Besides these there are numerous late accounts

which deal with this topic in great detail, e.g. J. I, 71 ff. BvA. 239, SnA. 391, DhA. II 195, etc. Actual battles are spoken of between the legions of Māra and the Buddha, and many of the late accounts make pāramitās combat Māra.

The only version which bears a close resemblance to the Padhāna Sutta is the section at Mvastu. II, 237 ff. Their common origin has already

been hinted at. Among the numerous incidents reported in Mvastu. between the two sūtras corresponding to Pabbajjā and Padhāna, there occurs a description of severe austerities practised by the Buddha (II, 231 ff.). It is stated that he lived on one kola (Pāli, kaļāya?) a tila and

a tandula each a day for three successive periods of 18 months each, and no food at all for a further period of 18 months making up a total of six

^{7.} Neumann (Reden, p. 469) equates tam mam to tam' mam (=tam imom—anaphoric, like so 'ham) which is a brilliant suggestion which explains the whole discrepancy, though the exact idiom is not to be met with elsewhere.

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years which agrees with all other accounts (cp. Nidānakathā). An old parallel to this is found at M. I, 245; thokam thokam āhāram āhāresim, pasatam pasatam yadi vā muggayūsam, yadi vā kulatthayūsam-pe-.

The prose introduction to the *Prahāṇa Sūtra* occurs at *Mvastu*. II, 237, in which it is stated that the Evil One visited the *Bodhisattva* while he was practising; austerities (*duṣkaracārikaṃ carantaṃ*) at Uruvilvā on the banks of the Nairañjanā. Comparing this narrative with M. I, 245 the striking similarity in the essentials, leaving aside the extraneous matter in the former, is the common basis of their origin that they point to. The main purpose of the narrative in *Mvastu*. being the linking up of various *jātakas* it is very unlikely that much attention was paid to the narration of the present story. This being the case exaggeration and poetic embellishment find no place in this part of *Mvastu*.

It is significant that it contains no passages corresponding to Sn. 427^{rb}, 438^{cd}, 440, 441^{cd}, 442, 443^{ab}, 444^c, 445^{eb}, and 446-448. Of these Sn. 427^{ab} is a descriptive line emphasising the odds against Gotama, while 438^{cd} is a phrase found in a slightly different form in prose, attānam ukkamseti pare vambheti, M.I. 402, A. II, 27, etc. and is probably an importation to the sutta. This is further strengthened by the phrase lābho siloko sakkāro (Sn. 438^a) which closely resembles the familiar phrase lābhasakkārasilokānisaṃsā, whereas Mvastu. reads lobha for lābha (probably a scribe's error).

The absence of the stanza Sn. 440 in Mvastu, its rhetorical effect lending a realistic touch, and the occurrence of line cd. at Th1, 194, J. VI, 495 make it appear rather suspicious in the eyes of the reader. Scholars have discussed at great length the phrase, esa muñjam parihare. ("Look you, I bear the muñia grass''—Neumann, esa=Du da, Hare, "See, I bear muñja grass''). Otto Schrader (JRAS. 1930, pp. 107-109) refers to Pischel's misinterpretation of the phrase as lch verschmähe das Schilfrohr ("I refuse to take the reed"); so does Oldenberg reject it (ZDMG 1908, p. 594). He quotes five passages from Gobhila Grhya Sūtra, Kātyāyana Śrauta Sūtra and Śatapatha Brāhmana to show the connection of pariharati with munia-mekhalā or muniayoktra-i.e. wearing a girdle. Dr. Schrader disagrees with Oldenberg's view that Sn. 440-442 is a soliloquy interrupting the direct speech of the Boddhisattva to Māra and says that these verses are calculated to frighten Māra though Sn. 442 may not seem to be directly addressed to him. Basing his argument on Sn. 431d he says Maram here is a poetical substitute for Mara tvam and interprets the phrase as "I take this vow (to conquer or to die, caring nothing for life"); cp SnA. 39. K. Chattopādhyāya (JRAS 1930, pp. 897-898) agrees with Schrader but prefers to translate it as "I gird up my loins" (which meant that he would use his utmost vigour in his spiritual fight). He equates the passage to Eso' ham parikaram badhnāmi (Veņisaṃhāra IV).

The section Sn. 439-444 is represented by only four lines at Mvastu. II, 240, and bears definite signs of enlargement. Judging from the fact that it was not customary for Mvastu, to summarise and condense, and that it often contains expansions of passages found in brief in Pāli it cannot be said that Mvastu. here contains a summary. The absence of a stanza corresponding to Sn. 442 in BSk. and the fact that it consistently refers to a real army and not an allegorical representation as in Sn. 436-438, are probable indications of the lateness of this stanza. Sn. 445^{ab} appears as a familiar expression adapted from the prose. The section Sn. 446-448 has already been dealt with (above). Thus, many of the lines in Sn. which have nothing corresponding to them in BSk. appear to be poetical flashes for embellishment which perhaps did not belong to the earliest form of this sutta on which were based the two versions in Pāli and BSk.

The Mvastu. too shows an expansion, which however, as in the case of the Pabbajjā Sutta has proceeded in a different direction from that in Sn. Besides numerous other pādas and parts of stanzas which have no counterpart in Sn. the stanza immediately preceding the concluding verse does not occur in Sn., but can be traced in Dh. 26ab and Th1. 883. An instance of a divergence in simile is seen in āmapātram va ambunā which is meant to correspond to āmam pattam va amhanā (Sn. 443d). Again, Sn. 446-448 need further investigation. If Sn. has borrowed the last two stanzas of this section from S. it follows that this part of the Padhāna Sutta is later than the Māra Samyutta. Taking into account the propensities of Buddhist writers to incorporate gāthās wherever possible, it would seem natural that S. should also contain Sn. 446 in verse. From this it may be deduced that Sn. 446 was not known in gāthā-form by the time of the compilation of the Māra Samyutta. Hence any inference that Sn. has directly borrowed them from S. would be erroneous.

On the other hand, from the aspect of the development of the Māralegend S. I, 124 appears later than Sn. Here three of Māra's senās in Sn. $tanh\bar{a}$, arati (cp. $\bar{a}rati$ BSk.) and $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ (viz. fourth, second and first) are personified as his three daughters Tanhā, Arati and Ragā who attempt to allure the Buddha. Thus, on the whole the $M\bar{a}ra$ Samyutta appears to be later than Sn.

Judging from the fact that Sn. 446-448 are not known to Mvastu. it may be inferred that at some stage the concluding stanza Sn. 449 occurred immediately after Sn. 445 and that with the introduction of the new stanzas the concluding narrative verse was shifted to occupy its present position. The $p\bar{a}da$ b, $v\bar{v}n\bar{a}$ kacchā abhassatha ("the lute fell from his arm-pit")

suggests a confusion of legend, the origin of which seems obscure. The Commentary (SnA. 393-394) states that it was this vinā (called Beluvapandu) that Sakka presented with to Pañcasikha. Yet, this does not solve the question of how Māra came by a vīnā. The parallel pāda in Myastu, which reads, vināśam gacchi ucchriti ("his pride was all shattered") probably expresses the original idea that may have existed, prior to the importation of the vīnā from the developed legend which speaks of his daughters as playing instrumental music as a part of their wiles. This phrase perhaps dating not earlier than the time of the incorporation of Sn. 446-448, a confusion as it may seem, is at best a master touch of poetic fancy bringing the sutta to a dramatic climax.

An examination of the internal evidence from language and syntax, metre and ideology confirms what has been already noticed. The idiom throughout is old gāthā-Pāli, and from the point of syntax the following expressions depict a very old idiom:—Nadim Neranjaram pati-Sn. 425b,... sevvo..vañ ce..-Sn 440^{cd}, mā mam thānā acāvavi-Sn. 442^d; etc. The sutta is full of archaic nominal and verbal forms e.g. Namuci (for Māra) -Sn. 426^a, 439^a, which is old Vedic (Neumann, p. 469), amhanā-Sn. 443^d, kāhasi -Sn. 427^d, 428^d (< kārsya- Geiger, 54.4, 153.1), socare -Sn. 445^d, nādhigacchissam -Sn. 446^c (is- Aor.), atthā -Sn. 429^d, anupariyagā -Sn. 447b (Aor.), p.pr. bhanam -Sn. 429c, and vinayam. -Sn. 444d, etc.

The metre throughout is old Anustubh Śloka. The few metrical irregularities are:—anacrusis at Sn. 428a, 431a, even quarters at Sn. 435a, 440a, 443a, 428a, 439c and 444c.

No developments in doctrine are noticeable. The thought and ideas embodied in the sutta are distinctively old. Confidence (saddhā) and viriya and paññā -Sn. 432 have no special technical significance which is to be seen even in very early works. Other qualities mentioned are. cittappasāda, sati and samādhi - Sn. 434. The severe austerities referred to at Sn. 433-434 are characteristic of the times. Another important concept is vogakkhema (already discussed) which has been seen to pertain to the earliest phase of Buddhism. Māra is called vakkha at Sn. 449.

All this evidence shows that the sutta is old as a whole; but as observed earlier, Sn. 446-448 should be considered as being later than the rest of the poem. It is also probable, from the analogy of the Pabbajjā Sutta, that the narrative element in verse need not have formed an integral part of the poem and that the nucleus of the sutta was the dialogue.

Nālaka Sutta

The Nālaka Sutta consists of two parts, the introductory vatthu-gāthā (Sn. 679-698) and the dialogue-discourse (Sn. 699-723) dealing with moneyya—the state of a muni. As the vatthu-gāthā present a multiplicity of problems they call for separate attention. Generally, introductions to old Pāli ballads are considerably later than the poems themselves (vide PBR 1, 2, p. 86 and vide E. J. Thomas, Life of Buddha, p. 38). It will be seen that this is clearly borne out by the vatthu-gāthà in spite of the fact that they are in verse (also cp. vatthu-gāthā of Pārāyana). Unlike the introductions to many other suttas which narrate the incidents leading up to their preaching, these gāthās have little bearing on the sutta proper. There is a difference in point of time in the sequence of events in the two parts of the sutta. As regards characters in the v.g, a close parallel is offered by the Pārāyana Vagga, for Nālaka plays the same rôle as Pingiya in Pār (vatthu-gāthā, pucchā and epilogue) while Asita's position here is very similar to that of Bavarī.

Despite the siender connection between the two parts, the internal and external evidence establishes beyond doubt that a fusion of two independent ballads has taken place, as in the case of the Sela Sutta (Sn. pp. 102 ff.8) and that the two components were separated in point of time.9

The language, style and metre of the vatthu-gāthā differ considerably from those of the sutta proper. At the same time there is a marked tendency towards the growth of a developed Buddha-legend, which is totally absent in the discourse. This is evident from the reference to the thirty-two marks (vide E. J. Thomas, ibid.) and the occurrence of the term Bodhisatta at Sn. 683.10 The general tone of this part of the sutta with its description of the devas rejoicing at the birth of the Buddha and Asita's prophecy is that of a later piece.

Language and style.—There are many late and Sanskritic forms lying side by side with equally numerous very old forms: e.g. cittimkaritvā, atiriva kalyarūpo (Sn. 680), lomahamsano, marū (Sn. 681), manussaloke, hitasukhatāya (Sn. 683), the epithets in Sn. 684, avamsari (an analogical form -Sn. 685), sikhi-fire, the simile in the lines be (Sn. 687), patiggahe

^{8.} Vide Katre. He states that the intervening prose between Sn. 567 and 568 is 'solely due to the fusion' of two different ballads.

9. Vide E. J. Thomas, ibid, p. 39 'The question of the sutta is quite different from

the question of the origin of the legend (Asita's) and its becoming attached to this sutta.'

^{10.} Though "the Bodhisattva doctrine probably originated in the second century B.C." (Har Dayal-The Bodhisattva Doctrine in Buddhist Sanskrit Literature, p. 43) the term is older; but it does not reflect the oldest stratum of thought in Pāli Buddhism.

(an artificial form -Sn. 689), Sakyapungavam (Sn. 690), gamanam (= maraṇam), akalyarūpo (Sn. 691), the sandhis, isi-m-avoca, cāpi-m-assa, the phrase adhimanasā bhavātha (Sn. 692), kālakiriyā, asamadhura (Sn. 694), and hilamanasena (Sn. 697). While the late forms suggest a date for the vatthu-gāthā the old and archaic forms handed down from an older period as the standard vehicle of poetic expression require no comment. The sutta itself (Nālaka-discourse) is marked by a total absence of late forms.

The style of the discourse is quite different from that of the vatthugāthā. The miraculous and the semi-supernatural element is a dominant feature in the latter. The narrative in addition to its highly ornate character is extravagantly descriptive and abounds in simile and metaphor, e.g. Sn. 686-687, etc. There are also instances of the same statement being repeated in similar words, e.g. Sn. 687, 689, which have the appearance of commentarial gloss. The sutta proper is written in a much simpler style.

Metre. The Sutta proper (Sn. 699-723) is in uniform Śloka metre like the Pabbajjā and Padhāna Suttas while the vatthu-gāthā are in a jumble of metres i.e. Sn. 681. 682, 684, 688-690 (except 688b) are in Triṣṭubh with jagati pādas, and Sn. 679-680, 683, 685-687, 691-698 are in a metre of their own with the Triṣṭubh rhythm continued. Though it is generally held that historically, the Śloka metre is later than the Triṣṭubh it need not necessarily imply that these ślokas are later than the Triṣṭubh verses in the vatthu-gāthā. The divergence in metre is perhaps additional proof of the difference in the periods of composition of the two parts.

External Evidence:

The story of the Buddha's nativity in the vatthu-gāthā agrees in general with the versions in Lalitāvistara, Mahāvastu, the Tibetan Dulva and the Nidānakathā (Jātaka), but differs considerably in details. E. J. Thomas (Life of Buddha, pp. 38 ff.) has made a comparative study of this and no attempt is made here to go into any details. The verse-recension which follows the prose at Lal. 101 ff. has no connection whatsoever with the Nālaka-discourse in Sn. but is merely a different version of the prose legend with enlargements and details which differ to some extent. Unlike the prose these verses bear no close resemblance to the vatthu-gāthā. The points of interest in this account are:—1. Asita's nephew is Naradatta and not Nālaka as in Sn. 2. There are more miracles, but the Bodhisattva does not plant his feet on Asita's forehead as at J. I, 55. 3. Asita sees with divine eye—dibbacakkhu—the birth of the Buddha and informs his nephew of it declaring the only two courses of action open to such

a being. 4. He takes his nephew with him to Kapilavāstu and interviews Suddhodana and not the Sākyas as in Sn. 5. The thirty-two major characteristics are dealt with in great detail. 6. After his pronouncement that the new born babe would become the Buddha he returns to the āśrama and advises Naradatta to follow the Buddha when the time comes.

The version in Mvastu. which agrees with the vatthu-gāthā is found quite apart from the Nālaka-discourse, viz. Mvastu. II. 30 ff. and III. 382 ff. (in both prose and verse respectively). Here Asita, the rsi from Ujjayini goes to Kapilavāstu with his pupils including Nālaka who later in the account is also called Nārada. In details, the account is similar to that in Lai. Although the naimittikas, "soothsayers" declare that the young prince would become a cakravartin, Asita is certain of his becoming the Buddha. There are a few other miracles such as the birth of 500 each of girls, boys, male and female slaves, etc. simultaneous with that of the Bodhisattva. The verses that follow (pp. 33-43) deal more elaborately with the same incident. Asita advises Nārada to practise the brahmacaryā under the Buddha. The version at Mvastu. III, 382 ff. will be discussed later. It is also noteworthy that the Buddha's interlocutor here is called Nālaka Kātyāyana (p. 386) who on the advice of his father, the purohita to king Tonehāra seeks ordination (by the formula, ehi bhiksu).

According to the Tibetan account at *Dulva*, III. f. 461 ff. (Rockhill, *Life of the Buddha*, pp. 17 ff.) it is the statue of the *yakṣa* Śākyavardhana that bows down at the child's feet and not the hermit as in J. The *ṛṣi* Akleśa (=Asita—Rockhill) the dweller on the Sarvadhāra mountain, with his nephew Nalada goes to see the infant Bodhisattva. He predicts the child's future and advises his nephew to enter the Sākyan order when the time comes. The *Dulva* further states that Nalada became known as Kātyyāyana among the 500 brahmins whom he joined at Benares, and that after his conversion by the Buddha he was called "the great member of Kātya's family". Thus, an attempt is made here to identify him with Mahākātyāyana (cp. *Mvastu*. III, 386 Nālaka Kātyāyana).

The Nidānakathā (J. I. 54 ff.) which decidedly shows signs of being much later than the BSk. accounts contains a great many details and abounds in miracles. The story, agrees fundamentally with the other versions. The name of the aged visitor is Kāļa-devala, 'Devala the Black' (Asita=Kāļa). He is a tāpasa, 'a hermit' from Avanti Dakkhiṇā-patha (Ujjeni, cp. Mvastu.) and not an rṣi. As in the Dulva the exact time of the Buddha's enlightenment is stated (viz. after thirty-five years).

Among other references to Asita in the Pāli Canon is the mention of Asita-devala at M. II, 155 whom Malalasekera (s.v., DPPN) attempts to

identify with Kāladevala an ascetic of Aranjarā whose younger brother was Nārada. In the Samodhāna of the Indriva Jātaka (J. III, 469) Kāladevala is identified with Kaccana which perhaps indicates a distant echo of Nālaka Kātyāyana in Mvastu. or Mahākātyāyana of the Dulva (vide Rockhill, ibid, pp. 18, 45). There is also mention made of Nārada of Arañjagiri in Majjhimappadesa, the younger brother of Kāladevala at J. III, 463 ff. and V, 133 ff.

The relatively early existence of the account is evident from the diverse accounts which present a uniformity in essentials. The more elaborate versions in BSk. with all their embellishments are decidedly later than the vatthu-gāthā. Needless to say the Nidānakathā and the Dulva are much younger than the BSk. However, the general consistency suggests a common origin to all these accounts. Though it is said that there is no evidence to show that the legend itself was pre-Christian (Thomas, ibid.) this alone is no proof of its being so late as that. It may have had an independent existence long before it came to be fixed in some definite form in the vatthu-gāthā. There is no reason to exclude the vatthu-gāthā from the Sutta Nipāta that was known to the author of Milp. (vide Milp. 411, 414, etc.). Thus it is quite probable that this legend existed in pre-Christian times. At the same time it cannot be disputed that it was later than the sutta proper.

Internal evidence has shown that it belongs to a younger stratum than the Nālaka-discourse. The fact that it has little bearing on the latter is further proof of its being an accretion at editorial hands, as was noted in the case of the vatthu-gāthā of the Pārāyana Vagga. The independent accounts in Lal., Mvastu., Nidānakathā and Dulva, though they may be much later than Sn., further testify to the fact that the two parts of the sutta known as Nālaka Sutta in Sn. are in reality two independent poems differing in age, brought together at a subsequent date which, most probably, coincided with that of the final collation of Sn.

The identity of Nālaka is made rather obscure by his being referred to as Nālaka Kātyāyana at Mvastu. III, 386 ff. Nalada Kātyāyana's conversion at Dulva XI, f. 118 ff. (Rockhill, op. cit. 45-46) found quite independently of the story of the nativity shares something in common with the introduction to the Mauneya Sūtra of Myastu., for, the episode of the Naga Elapatra occurs in both of them. Yet, the individual in question is no other than Nālaka of the Pāli sutta. Nārada of J. III. 463 and V. 133, ff. is quite distinct from Nālaka. Similarly it is doubtful whether Asitadevala of M. II, 155 who had a vounger brother Nārada was Asita of the vatthu-gāthā. Perhaps the identification of Kāladevala at J. III, 469 with Kaccāna and the mention of Asitadevala may have been responsible for the name Kāļadevala (of Ujjeni) in the Nidānākathā instead of Asita as in other versions. 11 However, it is almost self-evident that with the passage of time and the spread of the story various confusions have set in as a result of the influence of foreign legends.

Various attempts have been made by scholars to establish a connection between the nativity-legends in Buddhism and Christianity. In the circumstances of the birth of Christ, Bunsen, 12 Seydel 13 and Lillie 14 see an echo of the story of the Buddha's birth. C. F. Aiken¹⁵ an American theologian, sees in all these works "spurious evidence used to impugn the originality of the Gospels". E. J. Thomas (op. cit.) notes that Seydel, Edmunds and Pischel see in the story in Sn. the original story of Simeon (Luke, ii, 22-32) and that according to the latter 16 (Pischel) the differences between the two stories are less than their correspondence. Windisch, in Festschrift Kuhn has traced Asitadevala back to Brahmanical literature. He regards it "not absolutely proved that the Simeon of St. Luke owes his existence to the Asita of the Buddhist legend". This subject is discussed at length by Edmunds in his Buddhist and Christian Gospels, by Windisch in Buddha's Geburt, and by J. Kennedy in JRAS 1917, pp. 209 ff., 469 ff. Whatever similarities there are in these two stories Thomas has pointed out clearly the differences between them (ibid.).

As noted earlier it is quite probable that this story was incorporated in the traditional accounts of the life of the Buddha in pre-Christian times. Thus, any suggestion of a borrowing on the part of Christianity or of a common origin prior to the birth of Christianity might cast serious aspersions on the originality and uniqueness of the legendary sections of the Gospel which many writers have endeavoured to maintain. If there has been any borrowing at all both the Indo-Aryans in Madhyadeśa and the Jews in ancient Israel may have probably drawn from a common source. However, the greater probability is that both stories may have originated independently of each other, and that they are merely parallel developments in the course of growth in the two respective religions.

The Nālaka-discourse:

The sutta itself dealing with moneyya, as observed earlier, preceded the composition of the vatthu-gāthā. The contents of the discourse with the emphasis on the conduct of a muni which points to a society of forestdwelling ascetics, are indicative of its early origin. It prescribes the rules

11. Sn. 689 refers to Asita as Kanhasiri and SnA. 487 as Kanhadevala.

Pischel Leberi und Lebre des Buddha, p. 23 II.

^{12.} E. von Bunsen, The Angel-Messiah of Buddhists, Essenes and Christians, p. 34. 13. R. Seydel, Das Evangetium von Jesu in seinen Verhälnissen zu Buddha, p. 136.

^{14.} A. Lillie, Influence of Buddhism on Primitive Christianity, p. 26.

The Dhamma of Gotama Buddha and the Gospel of Jesus Christ, p. xiv.

and modes of conduct for the monk, and therefore belongs to that category of suttas in Sn. designated as the "muni-class". There is a higher ethical basis underlying the sutta; and this is much more pronounced than even in the Muni and Sammāparibbājaniya Suttas. It has the same tone as the Khaggavisāna Sutta and agrees with its ethical values which have a special reference to the bhikkhu.

No detailed observations need be made on the language, style and metre of the sutta. A few casual remarks, however, have to be made on the ideology. On its own merits, the sutta recommends itself as an early poem, for all internal evidence clearly indicates it. The language is old and preserves several archaic forms many of which are poetic. Unlike the vatthu gāthā it contains no late forms. The ideas in the sutta share much in common with contemporary Indian thought. Neumann (Reden. p. 504 ff.) has made a comprehensive study of this giving many parallels. The stanzas Sn. 702, 703, 705, 711, 712, 713, 714, 720-722 are outstanding examples of ideas common to all literature of the period, though the thought throughout the sutta is more characteristic of an ascetic sect. However, a distinctive Buddhistic strain runs through the whole poem. Yogic practices are mentioned in Sn. 716, and in the above mentioned stanzas are to be seen echoes of the Brāhmanas and the Upanisads.

Although there are several accounts of the Buddha's nativity in Pāli and BSk. literature, the only version which bears a close resemblance to the Nālaka-discourse in Sn. is to be found at Mvastu. III, 386 ff. Practically the whole discourse occurs in similar words with a few changes, which however, do not show much divergence from the Pāli. The order of the 24 stanzas in Mvastu. is different from that of the 25 stanzas in Sn. There is nothing in the BSk. version corresponding to Sn. 718; and the stanzas parallel to Sn. 709 and 714 bear only a vague resemblance to them. Sn. 706 is slightly expanded in BSk. while Sn. 708ab, 707ab and 708cd, 709cd respectively form two stanzas and Sn. 719ahas no parallel at all. The other noteworthy changes are:—Sn. 702d//kṣānto cānumato bhava, Sn. 711ahagamma//āsādya, Sn. 711d payutam //prepsutām Sn. 708b abhihārayc//abhirakṣaye, Sn. 715a visatā//saritā; Sn. 716a//evam mauneyam upesyasi and Sn. 714ab// na pāram dvigunāyati nā' pi caiva guṇāyati.

The close resemblance these two versions bear to each other suggests that they are but two recensions of the same discourse. It may be probable that the Pāli version is older than the BSk., but it cannot be supposed that the latter is based on the former. The only justifiable conclusion is that they had a common origin. Besides this there are several Money-ya Suttas in the Pāli Canon. Anguttara Nikāya I, 273 contains a short sutta dealing with the three moneyyas, kāya, vacī and mano, entitled

Moneyya Sutta. The abstention from the three akusalas arising from these three sources is termed moneyya and the sutta is concluded with the stanza,

kāyamunim vācāmunim celomunim nāsavam munim moneyyasam pannam āhu sabbappahāyinam.

Itivuttaka III, iii, 8 (It. 56) contains a more concise version of the same sutta. It mentions the three moneyyas and concludes with the same stanza as at A. I, 273, but with the last pāda altered into āhu niṇhātapā-pakaṃ. The ten abstentions are not enumerated here. Sangiti Sutta (D. III, 220) merely mentions the three moneyyas together with other groups of threes.

Although the $N\bar{a}laka$ Sutta neither specifies the three moneyyas under $k\bar{a}ya$, $vac\bar{\imath}$ and mano, nor enumerates them as the ten abstentions all that and much more is implied in it. The discourse covers a wider range than the limited scope of the sutta at A. I, 273. In addition to the abstentions (Sn. 704-706) there are positive injunctions on the mode of conduct of a monk. The absence of a well defined classification, and the emphasis which still lay on the life of the muni, the forest-living recluse, are also indicative of the $N\bar{a}laka$ -discourse being anterior to the suttas mentioned above.

It has already been observed that Asoka's Moneya-sūte was the Nālaka Sutta PBR 1, 3p. 138. Mrs. Rhys Davids (Manual, pp. 312-314) identifies the fifth dhammapaliyāya with it. III, iii, 8 (It. 367 is evidently a misprint for It. No. 67), and Winternitz (op. cit. I, 607) accepts it. The alternative name of this sutta was the Moneyya Sutta (Mvastu. Mauneya), and it is most improbable that Asoka would have meant either It. 56 or A. I, 273 by his Moneya-sūte, for there is nothing remarkable about these two pieces whereas Nālaka Sutta has every claim to it. The thought and sentiments in it are so lofty that it had to be included in the list with its companion poem the Muni Sutta. Besides this, the musical Śloka metre may have also been responsible for its popularity, for as stated earlier (ibid.) a sutta in verse would naturally have been preferred to a passage in prose. Hence Mookerji's sug gestion (Asoka, p. 118n) that by Moneya-sūte was meant the Nālaka Sutta should be accepted.¹⁷

(continued)

^{17.} The suggestion that Asoka's Moneya-sūte meant the Thera-and Therī-Gāthā (Max Walleser) is untenable.

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPATA

N. A. Jayawickrama

Some Suttas from the Atthaka Vagga

68

Kāma Sutta

The Kāma Sutta which appears at the head of the Aṭṭhaka Vagga presents many problems. The four suttas consisting of eight stanzas each and called Aṭṭhakas by the compilers follow the Kāma Sutta. Judging from the evidence furnished by Pali sources alone, the natural inference is that these are the true Aṭṭhakas and the vagga including the rest of the suttas was named after them. The possibility of an alternative explanation has been suggested earlier.

As said above these four Atthakas form one group and the rest of the suttas form the other group (or groups). It is not possible to say whether these four suttas formed the foundation on which the superstructure of the rest of the vagga was built, or whether they formed an ornamental carving on the already existing edifice of the vagga, finally providing those characteristics which supplied the name to the vagga which it now bears. Linguistic evidence may perhaps furnish a clue to its solution.

The stanzas are examined individually below:-

Sn. 766; the cognate use in $k\bar{a}mam k\bar{a}may am\bar{a}nassa$ (v. i. $k\bar{a}may \bar{a}nassa$) is old and poetic and is of restricted usage in subsequent literature; ce as a conditional conjunctive as in 767^a is restricted to $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$. The ellipsis in pada 6 is $metri\ causa$. The pada has the ring of an old $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$, specially the emphatic particle used.

Sn. 767; The medial ppr. $k\bar{a}may\bar{a}nassa$ is old $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ from Vedic crigin. The gender of $k\bar{a}ma$ is uncertain in this sutta; $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ alternates with $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}ni$ (771b). Of the 5 instances the word occurs in the sutta it is decidedly masc. at 768a and 769a and probably masc. in this stanza (though traditional grammarians recognise an $-\bar{a}$ form in the neut. pl.). It may be either masc. or neut. at Sn. 766a (acc. sg.), but is neuter at 771b though the pronoun referring to it seems to recognize it as masc. (but te is occasionally used as neut. pl. nom. and acc.). The verb. ruppati dates back to an "r-dialect" in Vedic. (Cl. Sk. has $l-\sqrt{lup}$, lump.). It is most frequently used in this phrase (cp. S. I. 198; Th1, 967; Sn. 331, etc.) and is not met with in later literature except in grammatical works in which a fanciful etymology is suggested for $r\bar{u}pa$.

Sn. 768; $pad\bar{a}$ is a shorter Vedic inst. sg. and siro is the Vedic acc. sg. (historical) as opposed to Pāli sirasam or siram. The only term, with a doubtful exception of $abal\bar{a}$ (770°), to which a technical significance could be attached is visattikam. It occurs 8 times in Sn. viz. Sn. 333°, 768°, 857°, $1053^d = 1054^d = 1067^d = 1085^d = 1087^d$. Where the evolution of the idea is concerned this line appears the oldest of them all, for its use here is non-technical.

Sn. 769; The collective dvandva cpds. are old. The word porisam belongs to an old stratum (v. I. parisam, cp. Sk. paurusam). It appears as a collective neuter. The contracted form thiyo is historical; and the word puthū is met with in the old language (cp. Jātaka verse).

Sn. 770; According to the Comy. the word abalä is technical $(tanh\bar{a})$, but its use in any technical sense elsewhere is not met with. The phrase abalā va naṃ balīyanti could best be translated as, "being weak themselves (i.e. $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$) they overpower him" (cp. Chalmers' translation). A similar phrase is seen at J. IV, 84 (verse), $v\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ balīyanti (cp. Pv. II, 61). Line c, cp. Dh. 1, Th1, 735. The simile of the ship is continued in 771^d. The v. I. $silv\bar{a}$ may be compared with Dh. 369 (\sqrt{sri} ? to depend on). All these instances show that the language of the $K\bar{a}ma$ Sutta is necessarily very old.

The metre of the poem is different from that of many other parts of the vagga (including the four Atthakas). It is in the Śloka metre like Nos. 7, 10, 15 and part of 16, i.e. (Sn. 814-823, 848-861, 935-954, 955-962). The majority of the suttas is in tristubh viz. Nos. 2-5, 8, 9, 11, 12,13, and part of 16 of the vagga (i.e. Sn. 772-779, 780-787, 788-795, 796-803, 824-833 835-847, 862-877, 878-894, 895-914, 963-975. The Jarā Sutta (Sn. 804-813) and Sn. 834 are in Vaitālīya. It has been emphasised earlier that metre is no safe guide to the date of a poem in Pāli, for, not all tristubhs in Pāli date back to a pre-Śloka period. The lack of uniformity in metre in the whole vagga and the fact that essentially most of its suttas are linguistically old lead to the hypothesis that it was formed from already existing older material. The Kāma Sutta is one such instance, and the only conclusion that could be drawn (from the analogy of the Ratana Sutta) is that it was one of the last suttas to enter the vagga. On this account it cannot be proved late, for it may have had an independent existence prior to its introduction here which itself had taken place at a very early date.

The theme of this *sutta* is a very popular one in Pāli. Instances where monks and laymen are advised to give up $k\bar{a}ma$ are too numerous and therefore need not be mentioned here. Although there are many passages in the Canon dwelling on this topic, there is hardly any section which

bears a resemblance to this sutta. J. IV, 167-172 contains a set of 9 gāthās of which the first is identical with the first gāthā here, but the other 8 are different—though in tone and theme they are similar. Again DhA. III, 284 commenting on Dh. 216,² contains a passage similar to this sutta but the words and the tone are quite different. (Also vide PTS s.v. kāma). The other instances where gāthās of this sutta are found repeated are either quotations or examples for commenting viz. Sn. 766-768 are commented at Nett. 69, Sn. 766^{ab} quoted at PsA. 50, Vism. 378; Sn. 767-771 commented at Nett. 6; Sn. 767 quoted at SA. I, 32, Vism. 576; and Sn. 769 quoted at UdA. 120. Sn. 768 is common with ThI, 457, 769^{ab} with J.IV, 240, 771^d with Dh. 123, J. IV, 173, and 771^b with Dh. 369. The lines and pādas that are common to Sn. and other works cannot be established as borrowings.

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The Atthakas

The four suttas following the Kāma Sutta consist of eight stanzas each and hence are called Atthakas in Pāli. It has already been shown that this fact has led Pāli compilers to designate these suttas by this name and take a further step to extend the name to the whole vagga. The theme of the first of these "octaves" is closely related to that of the Kāma Sutta. In fact the Guhatthaka Sutta appears as a continuation of it and deals with the same question more comprehensively on a psycho ethical basis. The psychological concepts such as guhā and mohana (Sn. 772) are common to other schools of contemporary Indian thought. The term satto has a special significance, i.e. attached to the guhā. The psychological basis of this sutta is further seen in terms like mamāyita, amama (Sn. 777) ubhosu antesu (778), diṭṭhasutesu (778), and saññam (779). As parallelisms with the previous sutta Sn. 779° may be compared with Sn. 771, pariggahesu (779b) with Sn. 769, and Sn. 779° with Sn. 770 while appamatta may be said to refer to the yogic ideal.

On account of the similarity of the themes of the Kāma and Guhaṭṭhaka Suttas it may be argued that the Kāma Sutta was placed in front of the Guhaṭṭhaka aiming at an arrangement in accordance with subject matter. This, however, has not met with much success, for suttas 6 and 7 of this vagga bear an appreciable resemblance to suttas 1 and 2 in this respect. If these two were placed immediately after the Guhaṭṭhaka the four Aṭṭhakas would not have remained as a group. In the same way the

^{1.} cp. Ardhamāgadhī (Jaina) visottiya=Sk visrotasika.

Tanhāya jāyatī soko, tanhāya jāyatī bhayam, tanhāya vippamuttassa natthi soko kuto bhayam.

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subject matter of suttas 3, 4 and 5 resembles that of 8, 12, 13 and the discourse in 9. Instead of these suttas following one after the other they occur in three separate groups showing on the one hand the incompleteness of the classification, and the partial adherence to a method of arrangement according to external form, on the other.

The three suttas following Guhatthaka deal with the various aspects of one and the same theme. They indicate the Buddha's attitude to philosophical speculation. The Dutthatthaka points out the position of a muni who is beyond all censure and has become steadfast by casting off (\sqrt{dhu}) all philosophical views (ditthi). The Suddhatthaka ridicules the notion of attaining purity (suddhi) through metaphysical speculation and emphasises the importance of remaining aloof from biases and limitations. The Paramatthaka declares that philosophical disputation should be given up and that a true and steadfast sage needs no philosophical views to lean on.

In all these suttas, as well as in Nos. 8, 9, 12 and 13 and numerous other old suttas of the Canon the futility of metaphysical speculation is emphasised. The Buddha's attitude towards the subject is made evident in them. From a historical examination of the dominant ideas in them it could be inferred that they represent a very early stratum in Buddhist thought. The excessive indulgence in metaphysical subtleties of later Buddhism, specially that of Mahäyanic schools affords a clear contrast to the ideas and sentiments of these suttas. The main theme is the relinquishment of philosophical dogmas but other references to fundamental tenets of early Buddhism (e.g. Sn. 790°, 792°d, 793°a, 794°d, 800°, 801°ab, 803ab, etc.) are clearly indicative of the spirit of early Buddhism that these suttas breathe. Disputation is condemned. It is not a knowledge of metaphysics that is sought after, but a life of selfless wandering free from attachments to the states of being (777^{cd}) and unmeasured by senseimpressions (778d). The essentials on which early emphasis lay are summarised in Sn. 779. The muni is not sullied by "graspings" (pariggaha), he crosses the "flood" by the realisation of saññā (SnA. 518 nāmarūpa), has uprooted the dart, wanders diligently and yearns for neither world. Again, the muni has no khila (stubbornness, Sn. 780°), he is serene and released and does not proclaim his attainments (783ab). He has no theories which he has evolved and fabricated (784a) and is not one whose peace is dependent on mutability (784^d). He is a dhona (he who has cast off everything) and is independent in every way (Sn. 786). He has reached that state when he has no views either to approve of or disprove any dogmas (Sn. 787°).3

Many of the terms used in this section to describe the muni (both epithets and phrases) have a philosophical tone. They are in some instances technical, but the majority of them were yet to develop into technical expressions with definite values. The Commentary attempts to explain khila as rāgādi khila which shows a definite development of the term by the time of the compilation of SnA. (cp. Sn. 973b, 212c, 477c 540d, 1059^d and 1147^d). The only instances where it has a technical significance are Sn. 540 and 1147. A gradual process of crystallisation is to be seen in ussadā at Sn. 783d. Its philosophical import is evident in all the occurrences of the term in Sn. viz. 515d, 855d, 624b and 920d. The usual seven ussadā are given at Nd1, 72. The term dhona in the Atthaka Vagga is used with reference to the shaking off of ditthi (Sn. 786°, 813° and 834°); but at Sn. 351b it is an epithet of the Buddha. Nd1, 77 explains it as paññā while the Commentator gives the interpretation of his day. The wider application seen usually in Commentaries (viz. SnA. 542, J. III, 160) is not to be met with in Sn. for it is solely used to signify the abandonment of ditthi. Equally abstract and semi-technical in use is the term upaya (also anūpaya, Sn. 787ab, 797c, 786d) but it has not found much in subsequent literature. One of its cpds. rūpūpaya occurs at S. III, 53, etc. cp. Sn. A. 522, tanhāditthi upayānam dvinnam abhāvena anūpayo. . sam dvinnam bhāvena upaya cp. SnA. 558 upagantabbatthen upayam rūpādisu ekam pi dhammam upeyva. In both these instances the Commentator interprets from the level of his day, and the context does not justify the inclusion of tanha in SnA. and Nd1. 82.

The two phrases kuppa-paticca-santim (Sn. 784d) and attam nirattam are also interesting. The Commentator has seen too deep into the meaning of kuppa-paticca-santi when after a long comment he explains it as; tañ ca ānisamsam tañ ca kuppatāya ca patic asamuppannatāya ca sammutisantatāva ca k.p.s. sankhātam ditthimnissito va hoti (cp. Nd1, 74-75). The phrase "characterising the peace which is dependent on mutability" describes the santi of him who sees virtues in himself on account of his speculative theories. E. M. Hare translates it as "Calm on quaking built". It is in fact no technical term. The Comy. is again seen giving the interpretation of its day to attam nirattam where it speaks of attaditthi and ncchedaditthi (SnA, 523 and Nd1, 82) taking atta to mean atman and nirattam the BSk. nairātmyam which is a later development. (attamāttam). The universe of discourse here is ditthi (philosophical views); and hence attam and nirattam cannot refer to anything else but the acceptance or rejection of ditthi. In the light of the subsequent elaboration of the anatta doctrine which was a sine qua non in the earlier teaching, this word has undergone a complete transformation.

^{3.} SnA. 523 comments on attam nirattam as: attadițthi vā ucchedadițthi vā natthi.

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That the term *upadhi* (sopadhīka Sn. 789°) has a definite connotation even in Sn. can be seen from the various instances in which it occurs. Sn. 728 makes it quite clear. Also cp. Sn. 1050°d 1051, 33°, 34°, 546°d 572°d, 364°d, 33°d, 34°d, 642°d 371°d, 1057°d, 1083°d and 992°d. All these occurrences show that the term has undergone a definite crystallisation, and there is no doubt that the concept belonged to the earliest stratum of Buddhist thought.

The phrase, ditthe sute sīlavate mule vā (in what is seen and heard, in ascetic practices and holy vows and in what is cognised—Sn. 790b) is a curious combination of functions of the senses on the one hand and external practices on the other. In this context dittha, suta and muta (muta from \sqrt{man} , I.E. * \sqrt{mn}) imply the sights, sounds and other undefined sense impressions respectively which are considered auspicious and pure (cp. Sn. 790° aññato suddhim āha: and Nd1, 87II.: SnA. 527 comments. mute ca uppannena micchāñānena). Both Nd. and SnA. are not clear about muta. This idea occurs no less than 20 times in Sn. in similar words viz. Sn. 790^{ab} (= 797^b = 887^a), 793^{ab} = 914^{ab} (793^b =A. II, 25), 798^{cd} (c=S. I. 203), 797^{ab} (790^{b} , 887^{a}), 887^{ab} , 910^{ab} , 1079^{bc} (= 1080^{bc} , 1081^{bc}), 1082^{cd} (=1083^{cd}), 788^{b} (=789^a), 802^{ab} , 897^{d} , 778^{d} (=250^d). In all these instances the psychological basis of the reference to sense impressions is hidden by the nature of the context which either introduces or implies sīlabbata along with it. It is clear that all these references do not merely speak of the functions of the sense organs which produce the result but mention the result itself. Yet, Sn. 1086° and 1122cd seem to bring out the psychological aspect clearly viz. idha ditthasuta-muta-viññātesu (in things that are seen, heard, sensed and perceived). and

na tuyham adittham asutam-mutam vā atho aviññātam kiňcanam atthi loke

(there is nothing that is not seen, heard or sensed or else not perceived—cognised—by you in this world) as at D. III, 134, 232, It. 121. In Sn. 897, dittha and suta the functions of the two primary senses only are mentioned as at Sn. 778^d, 250^d, 1079^b 1080^b and 1081^b, although they

(Those diverse forms of sorrow which prevail in the world arise basing their origin on the material substratum. Indeed, the indolent fool who nurtures his material substratum repeatedly brings himself to sorrow. Therefore should he who discerns and comprehends the origin of the arising of sorrow not accumulate his substratum).

are intrinsically connected with $s\bar{\imath}labbata$. The same idea is expressed at $Sn.~839^a$ and 1078^a as well as $Sn.~840^{ab}//839^{ab}$. Although these references are similar to each other in meaning, dittha and suta (and muta) in combination with $s\bar{\imath}lavat\bar{a}ni$ mentioned or implied, are essentially different from dittha-suta-muta-viññāta in their fundamentals. The latter has a more universal application and is primarily meant to describe the functions of the senses (muta representing those of the three senses not mentioned under sight and sound, and viññāta that of manas).

The early Buddhist emphasis on the detachment from both puñña and pāpa is seen at Sn. 790°. It is aptly described as attañjaho in line d i.e. abandoning whatever is "grasped" (ātta cp. 800°, 787° not as at Nd1, 90 attadiţthijaho nor SnA. 527 attadiţthiyā yassakassaci vā gahaṇassa pahīṇattā attañjaho, both of which being interpretations of a later level). The idea of "crossing over" which is so frequent in the early Pāli literature (oghaṃ \sqrt{tr} or pāraṃ \sqrt{gam} ; vide the introduction to the Pārāyana, PBR, 1, 3, p. 146, is found here as at Dh. 412, 370, Th1, 633, Sn. 212, 473, etc. in its special reference to saṅgam (attachment). A saññasatto (Sn. 792) is one who is led by his senses; lit. "attached to percepts". Both SnA. 527 and Nd1. 93 speak of him as the opposite of vidvā. The idea of a sīmātiga brāhmaṇa is common to all stages of Buddhism cp. also $t\bar{a}di$, etc.

A comparison and analysis of all these ideas shows that they belong to the earliest strata of Buddhism. As pointed out earlier, some of them are in an early stage of development while others have undergone a certain degree of crystallisation. It is also noteworthy that some of these concepts as upayo which have not undergone any development here are scarcely found in later works or other works which may claim equal antiquity with Sn. On the other hand, elaborate theories and extensive treatises are to be found in later literature with regard to the more important of these concepts which developed fully under favourable conditions. A mere study of the ideology of these Atthakos and a careful examination of where the emphasis is laid in the poems reveal their very antiquity.

Linguistic data which form a very important factor for the determination of the age of the ballads confirms what has been arrived at by means of other criteria. In fact, in the case of these poems, linguistic data conclusively establish their antiquity. It is very significant that all the old forms in these suttas point to some Vedic dialect of Pāli rather than to the standard canonical Pāli. The language in general reflects a form of early Pāli. It is not proposed to examine every stanza individually. However, a brief survey will make the position clear. In this short section of 32 stanzas there are four full Vedic double forms with a dialectical (perhaps

Upadhīnidānā pabhavanti dukkhā ye ke ci lokasmim anekarūpā; yo ve avidvā upadhim karoti punappunam dukkham upeti mando; tasmā pajānam upadhim na kayirā dukkhassa jātippabhavānupassī.

Māgadhī) influence viz. cutāse Sn. 774^d, avītatanhāse 776^d, sitāse 791^a, and paticchitase 803b. There are 9 ppr. forms ending in -am and-ana viz. tittham 772b, jappam 773d, caram 779c, abhijanam 788c, yadanam 789d. pamuñcam 791^d, paribbasano 796^a, anupadiyano 800^a, and anadiyanam 802°. There are some words which are restricted to the Atthaka Vagga only e.g. paribbasano at Sn. 796, 878, 880, and 895, three of which occur at the beginning of a sutta (i.e. except 880). There are archaic verbal forms as jañña Sn. 775b, pāvā 782bd, and pāva 789d. The middle base kubba-is preferred to kar-; kubba occurs at Sn. 777d, 778c, 781c, 790d, and 794d; kur-at 796b and kar-at 800b and in purekkharonti at 803a, 794a and purakkhata 784b. There are a few other unusual verbal or secondary forms as suppahāyā 772^d, duppamuñcā, aññamokkhā 773^b, avadāniyā 774b, pariñña, accayevya 781a, svātivattā 785a, niccheyya 785b, 801d, vikappayeyya 793^d, 802^d, nissayeyya 798^d, kappayeyya 799^a and anūpaneyya 799°. There are also two medial optative 3 sg. forms, sikkhetha 775^a, and mañnetha 799^d which are characteristically gāthā forms.

The syntax too points to an old idiom. There are at least 10 instances of the construction with the historical locative of relation in varying shades of meaning viz. at Sn. 772^a, 774^a, 776^{cd}, 777^d, 779^b, 783^b, 785^{bc}, 786^b, 787^a, and 793^a. All these are sufficient data to prove the antiquity of this section of the Atthaka Vagga.

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Jarā Sutta

This sutta consists of 10 stanzas in vaitālīya metre. The only other vaitālīya verse in the vagga is Sn. 834. The theme of the poem is the transiency and impermanence of life. One is advised to leave the household life "seeing that no worldly possessions are eternal and that everything is in a state of flux". Emulating the sages—munayo Sn. 809—the wise man is exhorted not to form any egoistic attachment to anything conceived as "one's own" since everything is left behind at death—Sn. 806. Death leaves behind only the memory of the dead.

The above ideas in Sn. 804-809 closely conform to the title of the sutta. Although the last four stanzas—Sn. 810-813—appear somewhat foreign to the sutta under its present title, all of them except the last stanza are connected with Sn. 809; and they fit in with the general theme on account of the similarity of ideas. Sn. 810^d is the logical extension of 805^d, and similarly 811^c is closely associated with 809^a. The sage is called a dhona in the concluding stanza; and in this respect 813^a may be compared

with 786^{ab} , line c with 824^{b} and the whole stanza with 790, 793-795, 914, etc. The line d, na hi so rajjati no virajjati, breathes the same air as the concluding lines of the Suddhatthaka,

na rāgarāgī na virāgarātto tassīdha n'atthī param uggahītam.

The uniformity of *metre* suggests that the poem as a whole dates back to the same period. The theme of the poem which is in praise of the *muni*-ideal is common with other poems of great antiquity in Sn. Sufficient has been said already on this topic and it not proposed to discuss it here.

The language of the sutta calls for particular attention. In discussing the stanzas individually any striking points in ideology and doctrine will be pointed out. Sn. 804 the ablative in oram vassasatā represents the old idiom. miyyati (lines bd)=impersonal medial cp. Sk. mriyate. An absolutive in adverbial function is seen in aticca (l.c); cp. upādāya gacchati, samādāya rakkhati, etc. The form jarasā can be explained in two ways; 1. inst. sg. of a noun jaras, an extension of the -as declension (besides jarā f. and jara m. or n.); 2. -sā adverbial suffix from the analogy of the adverbial inst, of -as nouns. The whole stanza is rather elliptical. Grassmann, Wörterbuch zum Rgveda, points out 6 examples from the Vedas where jara (s) is masc. cp. also the inst. at Rv. X. 85. Thus this is an old form in Sn. going back to a Vedic dialect. Sn. 805 cp. Mbh. XII, 805 and Asta Prajñā Fāramitā 254. I. a, cp. 777a, 809b. Of the 17 occurrences of mamāyati or its verbal derivatives, as many as 9 are found in the Atthaka Vagga. Mamāyita is clearly the earlier word signifying egoism. The word atta is not so frequently used in this sense in Sn. The opposite idea amama occurs 5 times in Sn. whereas anatta occurs only twice viz. anattani (756a) and anattagarahī (913d). Of these two instances only anattani (756a) has some connection with amama, but as this occurs in the relatively late Dvayatānupassanā Sutta it may be surmised that amama stood for anatta and mamatta for the parallel idea atta or attaditthi. The evidence at hand is insufficient to establish whether this really was the germ of the more comprehensive anatta theory of Buddhism. Another word which is in popular use in this vagga is pariggahā (five out of the seven occurrences in Sn. are in the Atthaka Vagga—viz. 393°, 470°, 809°, 805°, 871°, 872°, and 779b). The use of this word is necessitated by the subject matter, and it is semi-technical. It is evident that the central theme is the transiency of life and the impermanence of worldly possessions. The title Amama Sutta or Anagāriya Sutta would equally fit the poem, for specially the last few stanzas emphasise this aspect. The cpd. in l.c appears to be

an expression of popular origin. Sn. 807a supinena (with samprasārana and svarabhakti). The consonant group sva-more frequently undergoes samprasārana than assimilation in Sn. There are six instances of samprasārana (viz. supati 110°, supitena 331b, supina 293d, 360b, 807a, and 927a) as contrasted with one instance of assimilation (sonā 675°) and one instance of svarabhakti and consonantal hardening (supānā 201a). Metrical exigencies may have promoted this tendency, but the scarcity of assimilated forms may be significant as pointing to a particular dialect. 1.c. piyāyitam cp. mamāyitam. Sn. 808d: akkheyyam has the appearance of a deliberate pun (i.e. from $\bar{a}+\sqrt{khy\bar{a}}$ or $a+\sqrt{ksi}$). SnA, 543 comments, Nāmamattam eva tu avasissati. (The mere name remains); Nd 1, 127, Rūpagatam, vedanāgatam, sannāgatam, sankhāragatam, vinnānagatam pahīyati... nāmam evâvasissati. Akkheyyanti akkhātum, kathitum, bhanitum, dīpayitum, voharitunti, nāmam evâvasissati akkheyyam. (All that pertains to the fivefold aggregates perishes. only the name remains. Akkheyyam means to name, to speak, to address, to elucidate and to employ in usage; and only the name remains to be spoken of (or understood). Also vide PTS s.v. $\bar{a} + \sqrt{khya}$. It is quite probable that this is a gerund from $a + \sqrt{khya}$. kṣi (vide Pāṇinī, VI, 1, 81), i.e. kṣayya>kheyya, cp. śayyā>seyyā. The Brhadarayaka has the same idea (Brh. III, 2, 12), Yājñavalkveti hovāca, yatrāyam puruso mriyate, kim enam na jahātī ti, nāmety anantam nāma (Yājñavalkya said: when a man dies what is it that he does not give up?— It is the name for it is everlasting). Also cp. Maitri Upanisad II, 4, 6, 28 ananto' ksayyah (endless and imperishable) which seem to suggest that Pāli akkheyya may be from $a+\sqrt{ksi}$.

The Atthaka Vagga contains 9 out of the 11 references to the word jantu in Sn. The parallel word which is more frequently used in Pali is satta⁵ (10 times in Sn.) and jantu has almost gone out of use in later Pāli (s.v., PTS). It is only in one doubtful instance that satta (as referring to creature, being) occurs in the Atthaka Vagga i.e. satto guhāyam bahunābhicchanno—Sn. 772a (from \sqrt{srj?}).

Sn. 810. In line a is found one of the numerous instances where the word *bhikkhu* is used in the same connotation as *muni*. The word *bhavana* in line d is apparently a synonym for *bhava*. It occurs again at Sn. 685^b, 937^c and once in prose. Sn. 811, 812: The points of interest in these two stanzas are the similes in 811^d and 812^{ab}, which are in fact the same simile stated in different words. Along with 812b may be cited,

padumam va toyena alippamānam (Sn. 71° cp. 213°), nopalippati toyena, toyena padumam yathā (Th1, 701°d), puṇḍarīkam yathā vagga toye na upalippati (Sn. 517°ab), puṇḍarīkam va toyena saṅkhāre nopalippati (Th1, 1180°ab): and with Sn. 711°d and 812°a the following: vāri pokkharapatte va (Dh. 401, It. 84, Sn. 625), udabindu va pokkhare (Th1, 665°b), bhikkhu yathā pokkhare vāribindu (Sn. 392°d), udabindu va pokkharā (Dh. 336°d Th1, 401°d) and vāribindu va (M. III, 300, J.VI, 595).

Sn. 811^{ab} is significant as showing the detachment of a muni (cp. 813^d already discussed).

The general tone of the Jarā Sutta is archaic. It definitely represents the old gāthā-language. The thought in the sutta like that in many other old pieces is representative of the times. The Salla Sutta may be cited as a close parallel to this poem in ideology. The only difference is that it deals primarily with death while amama is emphasised in the Jarā Sutta. All the available internal evidence is in support of its early composition, and it is quite probable that it is as old as the four Atthakas.

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Māgandiya Sutta

The Magandiya Sutta is a dialogue of 13 stanzas in tristubh metre. The context of the sutta is the occasion of Magandiya's futile effort to give his daughter away in marriage to the Buddha. The story is narrated in detail at SnA. 542-544. There is also a dialogue between the Brahmin Mākandika and the Buddha at Divy. 519-520 which is incorporated in a prose and verse mixed narrative (Divy. 515-521). The two narratives at Divy. and SnA. agree in general, but differ in details. In the Pali Commentary the Buddha foresees the good fortune of the brahmin Magandiya and his wife to attain arahatship (arahatta phatupanissaya) and contrives to meet the brahmin. In Divy. it is a chance meeting. The names of Mākandika's wife and daughter are given as Sākati and Anupamā respectively in Divy., but the Pali gives only the feminine of the family name as Māgandiyā. Divy. contains a full description of the conversation between the brahmin and his wife about their future son-in-law, and introduces a new character, and old man who eagerly offers to marry Anupamā when the Buddha refuses her hand. Mākandika refuses his offer and he vomits hot blood and dies. It states nothing further of the

^{5.} cp. Raţthapāla Sutta (M.II. IV, 2): satto pana gacchati yena kāmmam where satta=jantu.

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Mākandikas while the Pāli mentions the attainment of arahatship of both husband and wife (SnA. 518).

The dialogue at *Divy*. 519-520 which consists of 5 stanzas shows some resemblance to a few corresponding stanzas in Sn. viz. st. 1 roughly corresponds to Sn. 835, st. 2 has some bearing on Sn. 836, and stanzas 4 and 5 together are somewhat parallel to Sn. 845. The ideas in st. 4^{ab} are similar to those at Sn. 845^{ab}, though they are not identical. The simile at stt. 4^{cd} and 5^{ab} is the same as at Sn. 845^{cd}. The idea expressed at Sn. 845^{cf} is found at st. 5^{cd} . The only difference between them is that in Divy. these two stanzas are uttered by the Buddha about himself, whereas in Sn. it is the muni who is described.

Again, Sn. 835 speaks of the three daughters of Māra as actual persons and not as mere personifications of ideas in an allegorical representation as at Sn. 436 (Padhāna Sutta) where arati and taṇhā are mentioned as the second and fourth senās of Māra. Ragā is to be identified with kāmā in Sn. 436. In the Māgandiya Sutta the three daughters of Māra are actual persons. In the Divyāvadāna their names are not mentioned, and the stanza runs,

drṣṭā mayā Mārasutā hi vipra, tṛṣṇā Na me nā'pi tatḥā ratiśca chando na me kāmaguṇeṣu kaśchit, tasmād imām mūtrapurīṣa pūrṇām.

Although the daughters are alluded to, tanhā (tṛṣṇā) and rati are qualities mentioned along with kāmaguṇeṣu chandas (cp. methunasmiṃ chando). Judging from this it is very difficult to state definitely which version preserves the older tradition. In both cases the personification seems to have been long forgotten and Māra is conceived as an actual being who had three daughters.

Judging from the abruptness of the change of topic and the transition from one subject to another in Sn. 836^{cd} it may be argued that Sn. 835, 836 are versifications of an old prose introduction. It is also a plausible explanation that the basis of the sutta is the Buddha's encounter with Māgandiya. This is common to both versions, and without falling into the error of presuming that the BSk. version is older than the Pāli, on account of its brevity, a common source may be assigned to both. From the evidence of Divy. any suggestion that the two opening stanzas were foreign to the sutta is untenable. Moreover, there is no difference in metre and language between Sn. 835, and 836 and the rest of the poem, and by no means are these two stanzas an interpolation of a compiler.

Yet, a closer comparison of the two versions shows that the main theme of the Pāli poem is not found in BSk. The Māgandiya Sutta praises

the muni who does not enter into disputes and has inward peace whereas the central topic in BSk. is Mākandika's quest for a son-in-law. The first three stanzas deal directly with it and the last two are given as the Buddha's own words of self-praise. These stanzas lack the detached and impersonal refined note struck in the stanzas of the Pāli in which the Buddha praises the muni when invited to speak about himself (Sn. 836^{cd}). It is evident that Sn. 837-847 can stand as an independent sutta without the two opening stanzas (Sn. 835-836). This leads to the inference that probably the Pāli sutta represents a fusion of two independent ballads of which Divy. 515-520 forms only one component, affording a parallel to Sn. 835-836.

PUCCHĀS OF THE PĀRĀYANA VAGGA

72

Ajitamānavaka-Pucchā

The Vatthugāthā and Commentarial literature state that Ajita was a disciple of the brahmin Bāvarī, although according to AA. I, 184 he was Bāvarī's nephew. Theragāthā (Th1, 20) mentions an Elder Ajita who had, in a former birth, offered a kapittha fruit to the Buddha Vipassi. The Commentary on this stanza (Th1 A. I, 78) refers to him as the son of the assessor (agghāpaniya) of the King of Kosala. Apadāna No. 509 (Ap. II, 449) also speaks of a Kapitthaphaladayaka Thera (cp. Th 1, 20), but there is another Apadana of Ajita the pupil of Bavarī (No. 397-Ap. I, 335). There is no attempt made in the Commentaries to identify Ajita, the Kapitthaphaladavaka with Ajita of the Pārāvana. The subsequent growth of the Bāvarī-episode in connection with the Pārāyana (PBR, 1, 3, p. 146), the antiquity of the Pārāyana itself (ibid), and the vagueness with which some Commentators refer to it,6 are additional testimony to the fact that the Ajita of the Pucchā and the Ajita of Th1, 20 (cp. Ap. II, 449) are two different persons. The Vatthu-gāthās refer to the sixteen questioners as, sissā solasa brāhmanā. The name Ajita need not necessarily be that of a brahmin (a-ii-ta=unconquered); and it suits a ksatriva equally well. It is significant that these sixteen are spoken of as ayasma Ajito, ayasma Punnako etc. in the pucchās. They address the Buddha on equal terms as mārisa as do all ksatriyas and the warrior gods of the Hindus (Sakka,

^{6.} AA. IV, 35: Addhateyyagāthāsataparimānam Pārāyanāsuttam (P. Sutta which consists of 250 stanzas); but the entire vagga with its Prologue and Epilogue contains only 274 stanzas, pucchās alone being 92 stanzas. The Parāyana is called a sutta here. Nd2 also refers to some pucchās as suttas and pañhas.

etc.). It is only in the titles of the pucchās that they are called mānavā (the text of the prologue and the epilogue is of no consequence for obvious reasons). The word mānavā, which often designates a young brahmin is no conclusive proof of these men being brahmins. Some of the names are decidedly ksatriya; e.g. Ajita Bhadrāvudha, the names Nanda and Hemaka are doubtful, and Pingiya and Mogharaja are most probably nicknames of ksatriva origin. Neumann (Reden 546) sees in the name Bāvarī a representative of the famous Kātyāvana school of the White Yajurveda (Bādarī). He says that among the mānavas there are seven other Yajurveda priests of whom four belong to the White Yajurveda. He also mentions a still older Bādarī of the Black Yajurveda to whom reference is made in the Baudhāyana-grhyasūtra (I, 7). Even if his suggestion is accepted there are still nine others who have to be proven brahmins. Moreover, a name like Dhotaka, which Neumann had in mind (his seven Yajurveda priests are not enumerated) is a fitting name for a disciple of the Buddha (\(\sqrt{dhu}\), dhunāti, to shake off, to purge, etc. cp. the concept dhona which is often used as an epithet of the muni in Sn.). Likewise Mettagu, Upasīva, Ajita and Tissamettevva⁷ are very suitable names for the Buddha's disciples.

The first question asked by Ajita is very far-reaching. On the one hand it could be interpreted empirically to mean only the external objects of the world, on the other it implies Ajita's premonition of world-sorrow. The Buddha in his reply alludes to the First Truth: dukkham assa mahabbhayam. In his next question Ajita goes a step beyond the answer and anticipates further. This clearly shows that Buddha's interlocutor was a person with a considerable previous metaphysical training. The second question is asked in a fashion that makes it possible to illustrate indirectly the Four Noble Truths. Because Ajita himself has some idea of the misery inherent in the world he is eager to know by what means it could be checked. Following the Buddha's reply (Sn. 1035) he shows his desire to know how sati, paññā and the individual nāmarūpa cease to exist. Here the question hints at nirodha (or perhaps upekkhā as well), and in the reply the very word nirodha is used. That Ajita thinks clearly ahead and anticipates the replies is evident from his question in Sn. 1036.

These questions are far too brilliant to be those of an insignificant disciple of a brahmin from the less-known and least-brahmanised zone of the Dakkhi-nāpatha which even during the time of the compilation of

the Baudhāya-nagṛhyasūtra was considered unfit for brahmins (Baudh. V, 15). Further, the trend of thought in these questions compares rather closely with the monistic principles of the Upaniṣads. The macrocosmic Brahman, identified with Ātman, the world-soul, gives place to the microcosmic Ātman which again is identified with the macrocosm. Though no such philosophical subtleties are in evidence here the progress from world-sorrow to nāmarūpa is reminiscent of the Upaniṣads. The picture of Ajita in the pucchā is not that of a typical brahmin youth but that of a mendicant initiated into the Upaniṣadic way of thinking. One would not be far wrong to conjecture that since the kṣatriya seers were the custodians of Upaniṣadic lore and as Ajita's mode of thinking resembles their's that he was a kṣatriya belonging to an Upaniṣadic school. The very fact that his name sounds like that of a kṣatriya or of a sage, 'The Unconquered', is no conclusive proof of his kṣatriya origin.

Linguistic and other Internal Evidence

The sutta generally bears the appearance of an old piece. There is a preponderance of the use of the particle su (or ssu) as an emphatic interrogative. This is a general characteristic of many old dialogue-ballads in which the interlocutor continually asks questions. Among forms which may be assigned to a dialectical stratum are; $japp\bar{a}$ (Sn. 1033c) which is not confined to $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{a}risa$ (1038d) found equally well in prose. A double Vedic form with the Māgadhī ending is to be seen at Sn. 1038a, $sankhatadhamm\bar{a}se$. The sandhi ki'ssa (1032c) is probably dialectical viz. kim assa>ki assa (nasalised \bar{i})> $k\bar{i}$ 'ssa>ki'ssa cp. Pv. III, 5, 6. ki'ssa vatam kim pana brahmacariyam where ki perhaps contains an original nasalised vowel. In both these instances $k\bar{i}$ 'ssa cannot be identified with the interrogative pronoun kissa in the oft-repeated formula tam kissa hetu. Also cp. Pv. II, 6, 1, Utthehi Kanhe $k\bar{i}$ sesi; the corresponding passage to it at J. IV, 79 reads as kim sesi.

The other peculiarities are more of a purely grammatical nature, yet pointing to an old stratum of Pāli; e.g. short abl. singulars vevicchā, and pamādā (Sn. 1033b), pithiyyare (1034d, 1035d) of Vedic origin (cp. Geiger § 122) with consonantal hardening.

The term sota (1034, 1035) is used in the sense of defilements such as tanhā (SnA. 586). Of similar application is sota at Sn. 355

Acchecchi tanham idha nāmarūpe (ti Bhagavā) Kanhassa sotam digharattānusayitam

(He has completely cut off the desire for name-and-form—individual existence—here, the stream of *Kanha* which had remained for long). Existence

^{7.} There is another Tissametteyya in Atthakavagga 7.

^{8.} Ajitapucchā is commented at Netti, pp. 70-72, under Sodhanāhāra Netti, III. 13. It states that Buddha's replies were in the form of sodhanā and not ārambha (on his own initiative) viz...ti paāhe..ti Bhagavā padam sodheti no ca ārambham. Ajitapucchā is again commented at great length at Netti, 10-21.

is often spoken of as a stream; e.g. bhavasota at Sn. 736b, S.I, 15, IV, 128, etc. It is considered a positive attainment to rid one's self of this sota; e.g. chinnasota Sn. 715b, and also sotam chindati M.I, 226. The flux of mind is also a stream, viññāṇasota D. III, 105, etc.; and the Noble Eightfold Path is called a stream (sota) at S.V. 347. The terminology of Ajita is allied to Buddhist terminology though at first sight the term appears to be used in a connotation different from that in Buddhism.

Style calls for no attention. The *pucchā* is in śloka metre (anuṣṭubh), and metrical irregularities are few viz. an even quarter at 1037^a , a short $p\bar{a}da$ at 1036^a , and extra-syllabic $p\bar{a}das$ at 1033^{ab} .

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The Other Pucchās

Like Ajita, the other 15 mānavās too have questions to ask the Buddha. Tissametteyya wishes to know of the mahāpurisa who is unperturbed and perfectly contented. Punnaka asks the Buddha about the efficacy of sacrifice and the reasons why men offer sacrifices. The Buddha replies that it is all futile and that it would not enable one to overcome birth and decay. Then he expresses his desire to know of them who have transcended birth and decay. Mettagu asks the Buddha the reason for the existence of suffering in this world and the method by which the wise cross the stream of birth, decay, sorrow and lamentation. Dhotaka invites the Buddha to preach to him to enable him to train himself for his release and remove all his doubts. Upasīva requests the Buddha to give him an ārammana (means, object) by which he may cross the Flood (ogha). Nanda asks whether it is knowledge or the mode of living that characterises a muni. He also wishes to find out whether those who profess metaphysical theories have overcome birth and decay. Hemaka tells the Buddha that he took no delight in the theories of the Vitandayadins, and requests him to preach to him the dhamma by which he may transcend 'this sinful bent'. Todeyva asks the Buddha about the nature of the emancipation of him who has no craving, is free from lust, and has overcome doubt. Kappa asks him of the island-refuge from the formidable stream confronting the mortal subject to decay and death. Jatukanni requests the Buddha to tell him of the santipada and to preach to him the dhamma to help him to leave behind birth and decay. Bhadravudha praises the Buddha and requests him to preach the dhamma to all. Udaya wishes the Buddha to declare to him the deliverance by transcendental knowledge and the destruction of ignorance. Posāla asks the Buddha about the state of knowledge of the person whose consciousness of form is extinct,

who has cast off corporeal form and perceives internal and external 'nothingness'. Mogharāja asks the Buddha how one should look upon the world so that Māra may not 'see' one. Pingiya like Jatukaṇṇi asks the Buddha to preach the *dhamma* in order to leave behind birth and decay.

A striking feature of many of the pucchās is the eagerness of the questioners to listen to the Buddha. Some of them come with special problems that had confronted them. Their earnestness is seen in Sn. 1061, 1097, 1120. Nanda's question gives the Buddha the opportunity of stressing the superiority of a moral life (cp. 1070c). He declares that speculative knowledge leads one nowhere. This is in contrast to contemporary Brahmanism where Upaniṣadic seers begin to emphasise the importance of knowledge (jñāna) for the attainment of Brahman. Vijjā (knowledge) in Buddhism in some aspects is allied to jñāna, yet the Buddha is seen consistently to reject metaphysical speculation (cp. Aṭṭhaka Vagga, etc.).

In reply to Upasīva's request the Buddha gives a short survey of the essence of vimokkha. This pucchā appears the most abstruse in the whole vagga. The concentrated ideas in it are highly philosophical and bear the tone of the more systematised passages of the Anguttara of similar import. It perhaps represents in germinal form the doctrines further dealt with in the Anguttara and Samyutta Nikāyas and carried to a degree of perfection in the later Abhidhamma Piṭaka.

The ārammana which Buddha gives Upasīva is based on ākincañña (cp. na kiñcid anyat). He has to cross the ogha by obtaining the release brought about by saññāvimokkha (cp. saññāvedayitanirodha). Then only does a muni 'go beyond reckoning' and obtain his release from nāma (nāma-kāya), for rūpa is eliminated at the stage of ākiñcañña. Here is a brief reference to the kāya theory of the Nikāyas. The Potthapāda Sutta in the Dīgha mentions the various kāyas as conceived by the divergent schools of animistic beliefs of the existence of a soul. The term rūpakāya occurs at S. III, 59 and nāma-kāya is that which corresponds to the entities designated as nāma in the division of the fivefold aggregates. Here is also to be seen a distant echo of the kośa theory of the Upaniṣads. There is nothing quite close to this in the Nikāyas, but the significant metaphor asim kosiyā pabbāheyya (as one would draw the sword from the scabbard D. I, 77) seems to suggest an early connection of the same ideas.

The central ideas of the *pucchās* are discussed in the general remarks on the *Pārāyana Vagga* (*PBR*, 1, 3, p. 146). All the concepts in the *vagga* are doubtless very old. The passages of philosophical import do not show much growth. The occurrence of the terms *viññāṇa* (1055), 1073,

1110, 1111 and 1037, nāmarūpa (1036, 1100), nāmakāya (1074) and nāma and rūpa (1073), ākiñcañña (1070, 1071, 1072, 1115) has already been touched upon. The terms kiñcana (1098, 1099, 1104) and akiñcana (1059, 1091, 1094) are of no direct philosophical import. Viññāta (1086) in the phrase dittha-suta-muta-viññātesu is a term common to passages dealing with sense-perception. The notion of going beyond samkham (1074), pamānam (1076), kappam (1101) agrees with the central theme of 'going beyond'. Like the suttas of the Atthaka Vagga the pucchās denounce disputation (takka 1084, kathamkathā 1088, 1089) and philosophical (speculative) dogmas (1078-1083, 1098). Many of the mānavas use epithets in praise of the Buddha (1043, 1049, 1063, 1069, 1073, 1090, 1101, 1105, 1112, etc.). He is called samantacakkha at 1063c, 1069c, 1073b, 1090d. The other frequent epithets are aneja (1112, 1101, 1043), vedagu (1049, 1059), bhāvitatta (1049) and oghātiga (1096). None of these epithets appears extravagant and all could be ascribed to an early period. The dhamma is spoken of as anitiha (not based on hearsay-1053). Santi is to be experienced in this world itself (1066). The terms itihītiham and itthabhāva also occur. No attempt is made here to discuss other data from the language of these pucchās, for both language and metre show signs of antiquity and agree in the main with the suttas of the Atthaka Vagga.

It is to be observed that only one (Puṇṇaka) out of these sixteen men asks a question about sacrifice, a thing which played a very prominent part in the lives of all the brahmins of the age. This question is the only justification to infer that Puṇṇaka was a brahmin; though in itself it is no conclusive proof. It has already been emphasised that some of the questions asked, definitely show that most of them have had a philosophical training in some system or other. It is quite probable that they may have belonged to some sects of śramaṇas or ājīvakas which cannot be easily identified on account of the scanty evidence at hand.

The only mention in the Apadāna, a considerably late work, of the celebrated Bāvari of the Vatthugāthā, with special reference to these māṇavas, is made at Ap. II, 487 (Mogharāja), Ap. II, 342 (Mettagu) and Ap. II, 357 (Todeyya). It was stated earlier that the fact that some of the names are brahmin-names does not necessarily prove that the questioners were brahmins. Dhotaka in praising the Buddha calls him a brāhmaṇa and in the same stanza addresses him as Sakya (1063). At 1065 he calls him brahme (voc.). This presents no difficulty when the new significance attached to the word brāhmaṇa is taken into account (cp. Dh. Brāhmaṇa Vagga). The main purpose of these questions is to find out a solution to birth and decay and not the settlement of the differences between the theories of these interlocutors and Buddha's teaching, for none of them

comes to the Buddha as a disputant. All this evidence points to the lateness of the Bāvarī episode as compared with the *pucchās* and shows the absence of any justification for the late tradition that these *māṇavas* were brahmin-pupils.

The Apadana and the Sixteen Manavas

The only other source in which these manavas are mentioned in a manner worth noting is the Apadana. Only eleven out of the sixteen are specifically mentioned, viz. Ajita: Ap. No. 397 (I, 335), Tissamettevva: No. 398 (II, 339), Punnaka: No. 399 (II, 341), Mettagu: No. 400 (II, 342), Dhotaka: No. 401 (II, 343), Upasīva: No. 402 (II, 345), Nanda: No. 403 (Ap. II, 350), Hemaka: No. 404 (II, 351), Todeyya: No. 405 (II, 354), Jatukanni (ka): No. 406 (II, 357), and Mogharāja: Nos. 35, 537 (I, 87; II, 486). There is no trace whatsoever, in the Apadana, of Kappa who should have been mentioned after No. 405, of Posala or of Pingiya. There is the story of one Udena occurring in the Apadana immediately after Jatukannika (i.e. No. 407. Ap. II, 362). Following this comes the Apadana of Bhaddalī (No. 408. Ap. II, 365). Although the names appear somewhat similar the stories yield no clue for the identification of Udena with Udaya and Bhaddali with Bhadravudha. Moreover, the order in which these two stories occur is the inverse of that of the two corresponding pucchās. Even in the case of the eight Apadānas in which there is no mention of Bāvarī (i.e. except Todeyya, Mettagu and Mogharāja) the text affords no positive evidence of a connection.

Further, Udena's Apadāna is the last number of the 41st (Metteyya) Vagga and Bhaddālī's opens the next chapter which is known by that name. This may be overlooked if there was any positive evidence of a connection, for Ajita's Apadāna ends the 40th (Pilinda) Vagga and therefore precedes the Tissametteyya Apadāna. The division of the Apadāna into vaggas being arbitrary and artificial, it is evident that Ap. Nos. 397-405 are meant to correspond to the nine māṇavas from Ajita to Todeyya. The tenth, Kappa is omitted, and the eleventh, Jatukaṇṇi occurs as No. 406. Then comes Mogharāja the fifteenth māṇava for whom there are two Apadānas. Sn. 1117 is quoted at Ap. No. 537, 25; and Sn. 1118-1119 at Ap. No. 537, 26-28. Though there are differences in details the two stories are practically the same. The fact that the Mogharāja Apadāna is so far away from the last story which has a bearing on the māṇavas (Jatukaṇṇi) hardly sheds any light on Sn. on account of the lateness of Ap.

References in other works

From the nature of the questions and answers in the pucchās it is to be inferred that the māṇavas entered the Order. This is stated in the late

Epilogue (Sn. 1128). Yet it is rather disappointing to see that Th1 is silent about most of them. It has already been shown that Ajita at Th1, 20 is not the same as Ajita of Sn. Similarly, Puṇṇa (Th1, 70), Nanda (Th1, 157-158), Posiya (Th1, 34) nor any one of the three Tissas in Th1. (39, 97, 153-154) shows any connection with the men bearing similar names in Sn. It is also highly improbable that Bhaddali (Th1, 275-277) or Bhadda (Th1, 473-479) and Udāyī (Th1, 689-704) have any connection with Bhadrāvudha and Udaya. The degree of improbability is less in the case of Kappa of Th1, 567-576, though no direct evidence is forthcoming.

On the other hand, it is quite probable that Mogharāja of Th1, 207-208 is the same as Mogharāja in Sn. In fact he is the most frequently mentioned person out of all these sixteen māṇavas. It has already been stated that he is mentioned twice in the Apadāna (I, 87, II, 486) and once in the Theragāthā (Th1, 207-208). Samyutta, I, 23 contains two stanzas, one by Mogharāja and the other the Buddha's reply, which are not found either in Sn. or Th1. It may have been quite probable that the original Mogharājapucchā was longer than what is now handed down in Sn. It is also probable that the Samyutta quotes from another recension of the Mogharājapucchā which is now lost. The quotation found at Milp, 412 of a saying by Mogharāja cannot be traced either in Sn. or Th1. It is probable that the source from which it was taken was known to the author of Milp, and was subsequently lost. The nature of these passages does not permit the inference that they belonged to another Mogharāja. This corroborates what has already been noticed in the case of the two Apadāna stories.

It is not proposed to give an analysis of the linguistic data. The few remarks made earlier show to some extent the antiquity of these poems. All the evidence from external sources points to the fact that Mogharāja was a prominent member of the community. The evidence from the Samyutta and Milp. does not help to establish the anteriority of the poem in Sn. to those respective works. It is quite probable that Sn. preserves only a fragment of a longer dialogue; and that the Samyutta and Sn, are complementary to each other in this respect.

(to be concluded)

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE SUTTA NIPĀTA GENERAL OBSERVATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

N. A. Jayawickrama

§1. In the series of contributions to the PBR concluding with the present article, an attempt has been made at an analysis of the Pāli Sutta Nipāta in the light of Higher Criticism. Various factors of the latter were grouped under the categories of 'criteria' which enabled us to estimate the single suttas as well as groups of them from the angle of literary, doctrinal and linguistic development. Special attention was paid, in the application of these criteria, to view the Sutta Nipāta under the aspect of historical development, illustrating its gradual growth. Wherever possible, external evidence was adduced in the historical interpretation of the data furnished by internal sources.

A study of methodology was one of the main concerns of this undertaking. Copious examples of each category have been given to illustrate and (as far as possible) prove the propositions; and special attention has been paid to samples of textual interpretation. Exegesis was both synthetic and analytic and the foundation on which it was built is the historical background of Indian (Hindu and Brahmanic) ideas around and prior to the time of Asoka.

By 'growth' is implied the gradual formation of a separate anthology called the *Sutta Nipāta* by the incorporation of *suttas* belonging to diverse strata.

For purposes of investigation this work has been divided into four parts. Part I (Introductory). The chief criteria (which fall under the heads of linguistic, metrical and literary evidence, doctrinal developments, growth of ideas and external and indirect evidence) employed in the examination of the ballads and other poems of the Sutta Nipāta were discussed in PBR 1, 2. The remarks (ibid) dealing with the title 'Sutta Nipāta' and its form and contents are also of an introductory nature, Part II. A brief study of the five Vaggas of the Sutta Nipāta was made in PBR 1, 3. Special attention has been paid to explain the present arrangement of the suttas in their respective vaggas. A few topics of general importance such as the seven dhammapaliyāyas of Asoka's Bhabra Edict, the Chinese version of the Arthapadam (Aṭṭhaka Vagga), the title 'Aṭṭhaka Vagga' and the relation of the vatthugāthā to the pucchās of the Pārāyana were also discussed there. Part III. The contributions in PBR 2, 1 to 3, 2 dealt with the analysis of a few suttas

representative of the various types of poems of the Sutta Nipāta, with the aid of the criteria detailed in PBR 1, 2. The poems examined were: three ballads from the Uraga Vagga, (Uraga, Khaggavisāṇa and Muni Suttas), five suttas of popular character (viz. Parābhava, Vasala, Mangala, Metta and Ratana), the Yakkha-ballads (Hemavata, Āļavaka and Sūciloma Suttas), the Pastoral-ballads, Dhaniya and Kasibhāradvāja Suttas, the narrative-ballads, Pabbajjā Padhāna and Nālaka Suttas, suttas from the Aṭṭhaka Vagga and the Pucchās of the Pārāyana. Now, Part IV is devoted for general observations and conclusions.

The composition of the majority of these poems can be assigned to the period 400-300 B.C. On the evidence available, it is clear that individual suttas have to be taken on their own merits though to some extent particular types of suttas can be vaguely generalised as belonging to distinct strata. The results which this investigation points to fall under the following headings:—(1) an early nucleus of a more or less floating tradition; (2) several intermediate redactions incorporating suttas drawn from the Buddha-legend and Buddha-worship; (3) a final redaction made for the purpose of propagating the Buddhist faith through its ecclesiastic representative, the Sangha.

§2. In the analysis of the suttas (loc. cit.), with the aid of the criteria detailed in PBR 1, 2, a few general tendencies have been observed. Many of the poems, on linguistic grounds, appear to be old; but it is not always that the evidence from other sources is in support of this. Generally speaking the poems of the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas and many of the pieces of the Uraga Vagga, in addition to those poems which can be termed as the 'Muni-ballads', represent the oldest stratum in the Sutta Nipāta. Before finally enumerating the results which this investigation has led to, a short synthesis of the various data will perhaps be helpful in obtaining a better perspective of the Sutta Nipāta as viewed from the angle of Higher Criticism. This synthesis will be mainly devoted to some aspects of linguistic data; and the characteristics of the later compositions can be inferred thereby. No special attention will be paid to the nominal forms and the few remarks made in isolated instances on the vocabulary are deemed sufficient. Yet, some interesting nominal forms have been touched upon. On the other hand, a study of the verb and the verbal derivatives sheds further light on the Sutta Nipāta as a whole. However, dialectical variations, Vedic characteristics, style and metre will again be touched upon in passing. Sufficient has been said in the individual suttas taken up for analysis on the doctrinal developments; and comparisons with similar poems (in Sn.) and classes of ballads have to some extent shown the general trends in Sn. A short survey will be

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made of the epithets and other terms used in Sn. to describe the muni and the Buddha.

83. The Sutta Nipāta is rich in verbal forms and shows a very wide range. There are over 2,364 finite verbs in Sn. leaving aside variant readings and p.p.p's. used in a finite sense. Of special interest are the verbs in the Optative and Imperative Moods and the Aorist and Future Tenses.

Optative.—The most favoured inflexion for the opt. in Sn. is -e for 3 sg. In all, about 192 forms end in -e, but as many as 31 of them are either causals or medials (of the 10th class) with the element -ay- (i.e. -aye); e.g. hāraye; ādive, cintaye, etc. A small number of these optatives in -e belongs to the first and second person singular; e.g. sikkhe, Sn. 1061a, 1062d, etc. Next in number come the forms in -evva. Considering the fact that this is the most popular conjugational element for opt. in Pali, (vide Geiger, § 128) it is surprising to note that there are only 135 such forms. Geiger (ibid.) does not class these forms as very early, for -eyva is a generalization of the Sk. -eva which underwent universal application in Pali. Of the 135 forms, no less than 115 are 3 sg. Another inflexion used frequently is ā for 3rd sg. (Sk.-āt); 71 times. Its use however, is restricted to a few roots, e.g. $\sqrt{j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}}$, 33 times, \sqrt{as} , 27 times (assa and $siy\bar{a}$), \sqrt{kr} (kayirā) 7 times, etc. The opt. 3 sg. in -etha occurs 57 times, and the 2 sg. in-etho only once (Sn. 833c). Opt. 1 sg. in -am occurs 6 times (vijaññam, Sn. 482a, 1020d, 1022e, 1065b, 1090c, 1097d). The first pl. in -mu or -ma occurs 8 times (jānemu, Sn. 76d, 559f, 999ad, jāniyāma 873d, namassemu 995e, sikkhema, 89c and 32b v.l. carema-se). The 3rd pl. in -u or -um (// Sk. -uh) occurs 10 times. It is evident that these forms are old. As seen above, some of the forms ending in -um have also the element -eyy- which can be directly traced to Vedic (and Sk.) -ey. Besides those belonging to the type kathayeyya (Sn. 980d) which are accepted as old (Geiger § 139), the majority of the 135 forms in -eyy cannot be classed with the later types enumerated by Geiger (ibid). viz. 1 sg. manteyyam (Sn. p. 103), 2 sg. āroceyvāsi (M. II. 210), dhāreyyāsi (Milp. 47). 3 sg. jāleyva (M. II. 203) and dasseyva (Milp. 47).

Imperative.—The imp. in Sn. can be tabulated as follows:—

2 sg. in -a, 43; in -hi, 110; in -ssu, 23;

2 pl. in -tha, 40; in -vho, 3;

3 sg. in -tu, 16;

3 pl. in -ntu, 6.

All these forms are historical in varying degrees, but are used in all stages of the language, and therefore are of no great value.

Aorist.—Parasmaipada: Following Geiger's classification (Geiger, 159) 37 verbs can be said to belong to type I (33, aor, 3 sg., 3, aor. 2 sg., 1, aor. 3 pl.), 63 to type II (40, aor. 3 sg., 2, aor. 2 sg., 5, aor. 1 sg., 13, aor. 3 pl., 3, aor. 1 pl.), 90 to type III (72, aor. 3 sg., 5, aor. 2 sg., 3, aor. 1 sg., 10, aor. 3 pl.) and 119 to type IV (67, aor. 3 sg., 5, aor. 2 sg., 7, aor. 1 sg., 38, aor. 3 pl. 2, aor. 1 pl.,) which make a total of 309. Atmanepada: There are 18 A'pada aor. forms. Of them 11 belong to type II (3 sg.), 4 to type II (1 sg.), 2 to type IV (3 sg.) and 1 to type IV (1 pl.)—vide Geiger, ibid. Among these forms are a few augmentless aorists. Some original pf. forms can still be distinguished, eg. āha, vedi, etc. The impf., lost in Pali, is represented by type II and the characteristics of the impf. are preserved in many of them.

Future Tense. The sign of the future tense conjugation i-ssa- and the terminations -mi, -mo, -si, -tha, -ti, -nti are used in 46 future tense verbs. A form with issamase occurs once (Sn. 814d). The future 1. sg. -issam occurs 9 times, and ssam (without the connecting vowel, i) is used twice with thematic roots (upessam, Sn. 29c, and sossam 494c). The other historical forms are:—anupadassati (dā-sya-ti, Sn. 983b). kāhasi (kār-sya-si, -ss-> -h- 427d, 428d) gańchisi (*gam'sya- i/y, 665d), dakkhiti (drāksyoti, i/y, 909a), dakkhinti (p. 14), pavakkhāmi (vakṣyāmi, 701c, 963d, 1050b), bhāsihi (bhōs-ya- i/y, analogical 719a), dakkhinti (cp. dakkhinti 28c) and sagghasi (Však. 834d). This brings a total of 72 future forms.

§4. The verbal derivatives too show an old phase of the language. The Agent Noun, Absolutive, Present Participle, and the Future Passive Participle will be discussed below. The Past Participle Passive will not be touched upon as it yields no definite ir formation. The Infinitives and other forms of Vedic or dialectical origin will also be mentioned.

Agent Noun.—There are 21 agent nouns in Sn. distributed in the following manner in the five vaggas: 8, 1, 6, 4 and 2 respectively.

Absolutive (Gerund).—There are 389 absolutives in the whole of Sn. gāthās. Of them as many as 187 end in -ya, i.e. 111 formed with vowelending roots in Pali, in addition to 2 with -āya>ā (pariññā, Sn. 779a, palikhaññā 968b), 66 with consonant-ending roots and assimilation, in addition to 3 with -yy- (pappuyya, Sn. 593b, 829d, 482d) and 7 forms with the svarabhakti vowel (a-r-i). Of these 187 forms, 185 contain prefixes conforming to the Sk. rules. The two forms without prefixes are:gahāya, Sn. 791d, and yāciya 295b. Of the others, there are 117 formed with $-tv\bar{a}$, directly from the root. There are 8 forms with $-tv\bar{a}$ assimilated $(labh+tv\bar{a}>laddh\bar{a})$. There are 26 forms formed directly from the base. Of the 48 forms with -tvāna, 45 are formed directly from the root, two

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with the base and one form with assimilation (laddhāna, Sn. 67c). The form datthu occurs 3 times (Sn. 424b, 681d, 1098b). Of these 202 as many as 36 forms contain prefixes. It is clear that the majority of these forms go back to a very early stratum in the language.

Present Participle.—In all, there are 350 present participial forms. Of them as many as 139 are medial (107 contain the suffix māna and 32 -āna. both of which are highly archaic and go back to Vedic dialects). The occasional pronominal terminations of ppr. forms with -mana (e.g. Sn. 434a, and mānassa, 7 times) do not indicate that they were late, for in early Sk. too -smin and -sya are the terminations for the sg. of loc. and gen. respectively for ppr. medials in-mana. Of the rest of the 211 ppr. forms as many as 191 are historical. The total lack of forms like gacchantassa and gacchantam and the exclusive use of forms like gacchato and gacchatam for the gen. sg. and pl. respectively show that the ppr. too represents an old stage of the language. The 20 forms which cannot be considered equally old consist of 17 nom. singulars in -anto and 3 loc. singulars in -ante. But in Pali these endings came to be fixed for their respective cases rather early. Though they are not pure historical forms they may be old. The nom. sg. in -am occurs 83 times as contrasted with that in -anto, 17 times. The nom. sg. -ano occurs 21 times (passives included) while that in -mano (passives included) occurs 67 times. The nom. sg. neut. -antam occurs once (Sn. 208b jāyantam). The nom. pl. in -antā occurs 13 times, in -mānā 12 times, and in -ānā 9 times. The gen. sg. in -ato occurs 44 times as contrasted with that in -antassa nil and in -mānassa 7 times. The gen. pl. -atam is to be met with 20 times (tām once metri causa, Sn. 763d), as contrasted with -antānam nil, and -mānānam only once (Sn. 569c). The acc. sg. in -antam occurs 24 times (including passives and one instance of the final nasal omitted metri causa -Sn. 689c) as against the acc. sg. in -manam 12 times and that in -anam twice (Sn 789d, 802c). The acc. pl. in -ante is to be seen three times, that in -māne twice and neut. -mānāni once. The inst. sg. in -tā occurs twice (asatā, Sn. 861b, 950c) and that in $-ty\bar{a}$ (fem.) once (santyā, Sn. 872c). The loc. sg. in -ante and -mane occur three times each and in manamhi once (Sn. 434a). The loc. pl. -mānesu is seen only once (Sn. 434c).

Future Passive Participle.—There are 63 f.p.p. forms in Sn.; of them 46 are formed with -va (17 assimilated forms), 6 from -tabba and 11 from -aniva. A noteworthy feature is that 46 out of a total of 63 are formed with -ya. Speaking of Sk. the derivatives with -ya are formed in all periods of the language whereas the other two are of later origin—being almost entirely absent in the Vedas (Whitney § 962a). The same holds good with Pali.

The infinitive in -tum is the commonest, but there is an appreciable number of Vedic forms in -tave. (Dative Infinitive); e.g. unnametave (Sn. 206b), datave (Sn. 286d), vippahatave (Sn. 817d) and sampayatave (Sn. 843d).

Vedic and Dialectical Variations

§ 5. It is not only in the verb that Vedic and dialectical forms are preserved in Sn. Norminal themes too, both in their composition and declensional terminations show Vedic and dialectical characteristics. Many examples of such forms have been noted in the analysis of the suttas. To give a few more instances, the indicative 3 pl. (A'pada) in-re is seen to occur several times (vide Geiger, § 122.2), e.g. upadissare (Sn. 140d), dissare (688d), pațijānare (601b), pithiyyare (1034d, 1035d), miyyare (575b), vijjare (20a), and socare (445d). There are a few instances of the ending -āmase (1 pl.), e.g. carāmase (Sn. 32b), sikkhissāmase (814d). The Vedic -as has already been noted in jaras (Sn. 804d, 1123b), also cp. lūkhasā (Sn. 244a) and damasā, besides forms like manasā which are in frequent use in Pali.

There are at least 22 double Vedic forms in Sn.: of them as many as 17 belong to the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas; viz. cutāse (Sn. 774d), avītatanhāse (776d, 901d), sitāse (791a), paticchitāse (803b), pañhavīmamsakāse (827b), panditāse (875d, 876b), pavādiyāse (885b), upatthitāse (898b), sankhatadhammāse (1038a), samanabrāhmaņāse (1079a-1082a), anāsavāse (1082f, 1083f)-in the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas-and samūhatāse (Sn. 14b, 369b), paccayāse (15b), upāsakāse (367d), samuppilavāso (670d); also cp. the sg. rakkhitamānasāno (63b).

Dialectical variations are too numerous to give a comprehensive list here. The Māgadhī nom. sg. has been noted earlier. Besides this, various other forms belonging to dialectical strata have been pointed out. However, the following words are of special interest not only for the study of the Sutta Nipāta, but of the whole Canon. The Sutta Nipāta preserves many forms the parallels of which are to be found either in Sn. itself or elsewhere in the Canon. The word akalya occurs at Sn. 692a, (akalyarūpo, 691b) besides akalla at 456d; but in the case of tulya 377c, 85b, 683b there is no parallel form tulla in Sn. (cp. J. IV, 102), whereas tuliya occurs frequently in the Canon (s.v. P.T.S.). Such combinations of semivowels do not present a standard form in Pali (vide Geiger, §54). cp. also -annaya (Sn. 243c) and -anvaya (Sn. 36b, 254a, 556b). The forms aggi, aggini and gini have been noted earlier. The form aggi occurs at least 8 times in Sn. in addition to the proper name Aggikabhāradvāja;

aggini, 3 times (Sn. 668d, 670bd) and gini twice (Sn. 18c, 19c). The parallel observed (loc. cit.) was atta, ātuma, and tuma; atta occurs at least 45 times leaving aside cpds., ātuma, 3 times (Sn. 782d, 888b, 918d), and tuma twice (Sn. 890b, 908c). Substitution of consonants is to be noted in antika (31 imes) by the side of antiha (also 3 times). The parallel form abhikkhanam to abhinham (7 times in Sn.) is not to be met with in Sn. cp. tinha 3 times, but tikhina and tikkha do not occur; also cp. timisa, Sn. 669c. Similarly anga does not occur though ingha is found 5 times. The particle iva (usually after original h, m, or inorganic r, m, or in combination with a+i>e—sse va only—occurs 37 times, whereas va occurs 58 times (7 times after -ā 4 after -ī 3 after -e, 20 after -o and 24 after -m). But the later Pali form viva occurs only 5 times in the whole of Sn. The form chamā occurs at Sn. 401b, but samā the rarer form does not occur. Other parallel forms of interest are, iha at Sn. 460a (in tasmāt iha) as opposed to idha, over 90 times; uju and ujum once each as opposed to ujju-7 times; ubho, the original dual 8 times as against ubhaya 5 times; eva 61 times as opposed to va 23 times (mainly metri causa) while yeva is seen 4 times; kasira and kiccha both occur once each (Sn. 574c, 676a); kukkuciya occurs once (Sn. 972d) and kukkucca twice (Sn. 925b, 1106d); agiha occurs 4 times, gihī at least 6 times, gaha (cp. Rajagaha, 408a) in gahattha, 9 times, geha (nissita) at Sn. 280b and ghara 6 times; taccha occurs at Sn. 327d and 1096d, while tathiya at Sn. 883a and 368c; tatra occurs 4 times as opposed to tattha about 40 times; tamanudo is found at Sn. 1136a besides tamonudo at 1133a; thiyo at Sn. 796c has been noted earlier, and itthi occurs at Sn. 112a; divya occurs twice and dibba 4 times (cp. kalya); dhañña is seen 4 times as against dhāniya twice; usabha occurs 5 times whereas asabha occurs thrice in cpds.; the form nariyo (3 times) is probably a metrical variation of nāriyo and nārim occurs at Sn. 836b; nahātaka is found at Sn. 646c whereas nhā- is seen at Sn. 518b, and 521d; pāda occurs 14 times (inclusive of cpds.) while pada 17 times (cp. padā and pādā); the form bhiyyo (11 times) is preferred to -bhuyyas (only once in prose); the forms sacchi- and sakkhi- have been discussed earlier; Sakka occurs 6 times, Sakya 10 times and Sākiya, twice; sāmin and suvāmin occur once each (Sn. 83b, 666b). The group sav- has been dealt with earlier.

§6. Sufficient has been said on the style of the suttas in general, as well as that of the individual suttas taken up for discussion in Part III. The general inference made earlier is that a more ornate and 'finished' style is an indication of lateness in composition. The table of alliteration and assonance in the gāthās given by Mr. Hare (Woven Cadences, pp. 220 ff.) and his list of śleṣas (ibid. pp. 218 ff.) clearly show that these poetic devices are employed most in the pieces which cannot be stated to be the oldest

sections of Sn. On the other hand, onomatopoeia is not restricted to any one type of composition, yet it is apparently less in the earlier ones. Metre has been dwelt on at length in PBR 1, 2. The excellent analysis of the metres of Sn. by Helmer Smith (Sn.A. pp. 637 ff.) is a useful guide for the interpretation of the metres of Sn.

The doctrinal trends point to the realization of attha; the overcoming of birth, of misery ('III'), and of notions of self (mamāyita); the ascetic life and the Way Beyond are all attendant on the realization of this summum bonum. A comprehensive study of this aspect of Sn. has been made by scholars and it is not proposed to discuss it any further. (Vide Chalmers, Fausböll, Ilare and Katre).

§7. The terms and epithets used in Sn. usually reflect an old phase. The following synthesis will be mainly restricted to the gathas. The term muni is used 77 times in the gāthās. It is distributed in the five vaggas in the following manner; 26, 2, 17, 18 and 14. In 24 instances it is an epithet of the Buddha. It is significant that 8 of the 17 references in Mahā Vagga are to the Buddha, and a noteworthy feature is that the least references to muni are in the two vaggas which are not the oldest sections in Sn. (i.e. 2 in Culla Vagga and 9 excluding the 8 references to the Buddha in Mahā Vagga). Besides these, mona occurs at Sn. 718c, 723cd, moneyya at Sn. 484c, 698c, 700d, 701a, 716a and monapatha at Sn. 540c. Bhikkhu occurs 80 times in the gāthās, i.e. 22, 19, 15, 18 and 6 times respectively in the five vaggas in addition to over 15 times in the prose. Just as the term muni occurs a large number of times in Muni Sutta (18). bhikkhu is frequently used in the Uraga, Tuvataka and Sammāparibbajaniya Suttas (17, 9, and 8 times respectively). The term sāvaka occurs only 12 times, and it is significant that it is not used in the Atthaka and Pārāyana Vaggas. Besides, these references are to be found in suttas which cannot be called particularly old. Five of these references are in the Dhammika Sutta, in which bhikkhu occurs 8 times but muni not once. Samana occurs 31 times in the gāthās, and over 10 times in the prose (7, 1, 11, 8 and 4 respectively in the five vaggas). It is used in a wider sense than a Buddhist samana in at least 17 out of the 31 occurrences. In the combined phrase, samanabrāhmana it occurs 7 times in verse and once in prose. It is again curious to note that the word occurs only once in the Culla Vagga. The word brāhmaņa occurs 141 times in verse and 12 times in prose (12, 16, 82, 8 and 23 times respectively in the five vaggas). The extraordinarily large number of references in the Mahā Vagga is due to the fact that it deals mainly with brahmin interlocutors; and in the Pārāyana, the majority of the references are in the vatthu-gāthā. Brahma occurs 43 times in the gāthās and 7 times in prose; i.e. brahma (Sk. brāhma)

once. Brahmā 6 times, as an appellative (voc. brahme) 3 times, and the rest in cpds. including brahma-cariyā 19 times in gāthā and 9 other references connected with brahma-carivā in both prose and verse. Brahma loka is mentioned 6 times. There are only 3 references in the Uraga Vagga and one in Atthaka Vagga. Thera occurs only twice, and both in prose (discussed earlier). The word sangha occurs only 7 times apart from the 8 references in Ratano Sutta. It refers to the Sangha (apart from Ratana S.) probably only at Sn. 569d, 1015b (Par. v.g.) and p. 16 (prose). The term Buddha occurs 39 times in the gāthās (i.e. 10, 5, 14, 1 and 9 times respectively in the five yaggas). Of these the personal Buddha is referred to 7, 3, 5, 1 and 9 times respectively in the five vaggas. All the references in the first three vaggas go with other epithets while the 9 references in the Pārāvana are to be found in the v.g. and epilogue. Bodhisatta occurs only once in the late vatthu-gāthā of the Nālaka Sutta. Sambodhi occurs 5 times. Sambuddha occurs 3 times in Uraga Vagga, 7 times in the Mahā Vagga and 9 times in the v.g. and epilogue of the Pārāyana. Bhagavā occurs 54 times in the gāthās and over 20 times in the prose. It does not occur in the Atthaka Vagga. Satthā occurs 12 times in verse and Sugato 4 times while each epithet is used at least twice in prose. Tathagata occurs 21 times in both prose and verse; but it does not occur in the gāthās of the Uraga and Atthaka Vaggas.

In all the above instances it is quite clear that the early emphasis is on the *muni* or the bhikkhu and not on the sangha or the 'perfect' disciple nor on the personality of the Buddha. These aspects are taken up by the later poems.

§8. Coming to a few terms of general interest atta, dhamma, attha, saddhā, patha, magga, nibbāna and samsāra (bhava, etc.) demand attention. The words atta (by itself and in cpds.) ātuma and tuma occur 105 times in the gāthās (i.e. 11, 14, 44, 29 and 7 times respectively in the five vaggas). Anatta has already been referred to. Atta meaning body or soul in the Brahmanic sense is found at Sn. 508b (Māgha's words), and 919a (a denial) and 800a (a doubtful context); atta (self) tending towards the Brahmanic concept is found at Sn. 514a and 709a; attānam, the reflexive in objective case in 10 instances (and probably also at Sn. 709a). The possessive of the (pronominal) reflexive occurs in 13 instances, the reflexive agent attanā in 5 and the loc. of the reflexive attani in 3 instances and the ethic dative at Sn. 368a. All the three occurrences of atumanam appear to be reflexives (Sn. 782a, 888b, 918d). Mamatta (or mamāvita) occurs 12 times in the gathas; 9 of these references are in the Atthaka Vagga. Amama also occurs 5 times. The word dhamma occurs 188 times in diverse meanings. Attha occurs 48 times in Sn. The significant references are

Sn. 190d, 453c, 326c, 324d, 176a, 219a, 191c. 323c, 37b, 126a, 159d, and 320b. Saddhā occurs 16 times, but there is not a single reference to it in the Atthaka Vagga and the Pucchās. The words patha, magga and yāna have been discussed earlier. Nibbāna by itself and in cpds. occurs 15 times in Sn. The references are equally distributed in the five vaggas. There are 5 references to saṃsāra in the Mahā Vagga and bhava occurs 23 times in the gāthās (i.e. 6, 2, 5, 8 and 2 times respectively in the five vaggas) in addition to bhavābhavataṃ at Sn. 6b, itthabhāvaññathābhāvaṃ, 3 instances, vitathaṃ 9b-13b and vinābhāva at 588c, and 805c.

Conclusions

§9. As regards definite results which this investigation has yielded. one is confronted with various difficulties. Firstly, the diversity and disparity of the constituent parts of Sn. lead to contradictory data which result in conflicting conclusions. Secondly, the various religious elements which are not clearly separable rather tend to confuse the issue and are not helpful in any way in deciding the diverse strata these poems belong to. To give an example, the Buddha is referred to in many ways; Tathagata, Gotama, Sakya and Buddha. Though these terms are interlinked there is an inherent subtle distinction as seen in phrases such as, Tathagatasāvaka, Gotama-sāsana, Samana Gotama and Buddha-vacana. Thirdly, the archaic character of the language is sometimes very deceptive. It is not always that poems bearing an archaic stamp, linguistically, are genuinely old. This fact has been stressed before and instances of this nature have already been noted; (e.g. Ratana Sutta). The Pali of the gāthās represents the standard vehicle of poetic expression, the archaic colouring being the outcome of a close adherence to what may be termed as the gatha-style. Yet, the Vedic elements in Sn., as a rule, are generally confined to those sections to which an early date can be assigned on collective data. On the other hand, the late linguistic characteristics have yielded definite information. Finally, no definite and precise information can be gathered from the haphazard arrangement of the suttas in Sn., for, no final decision can be made from the present state of Sutta Nipāta which contains suttas put together at various dates and presenting no uniformity whatsoever. The different traditions in Pali and BSk., show that the development of these suttasis many-sided with divergent roots both in contents and form.

§ 10. In spite of these limitations the diverse strata as regards compilation as opposed to those of composition are discernible to some extent in the light of the information gathered in the course of our investigation. It is not our aim to determine the dates of composition of every sutta.

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The internal and external evidence of the suttas selected for analysis in Part III has shown that the suttas of the Atthaka Vagga, the Pucchas of the Pārāvana and the ballads in praise of the Muni-ideal (found chiefly in the Uraga Vagga) are about the oldest sections in Sn. The general didactic poems found scattered in the first three vaggas and usually named after a simile or metaphor represent a subsequent phase. To the same period can be assigned the two opening suttas of the Mahā Vagga dealing with the Buddha's early career, the older dialogues in the Mahā Vagga, the dialogue-ballads of the Uraga Vagga and the Yakkha-ballads. Four of the five suttas of popular character (i.e. excluding Ratana, PBR 2, 2), the Cunda Sutta and the Kokāliya Suttas appear to be a little younger but were definitely pre-Asokan. The Ratana, Vijaya, and Dvayatānupassanā were probably the youngest suttas in Sn. while the vatthugāthās (excepting those of the Rāhula Sutta) represent the latest compositions in Sn.

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S. N. Katre in his Early Buddhist Ballads and their Relation to the older Upanishadic Literature assigns the period 500-300 B.C. to the ballads of Sn. From the data now available and the fact that due allowance should be made for the arising of Buddhistic literary activity among the adherents of Buddhism (for, the pieces in Sn. are decidedly literary compositions) the age of composition of the bulk of the poems may be narrowed down roughly to the period 400-300 B.C. This does not deny the possibility of a few ballads being anterior to the earliest limit of 400 B.C. Although it is not possible to estimate by what length of time the various classes of poems were separated it is evident that the earliest and the youngest poems show a great disparity as regards their respective ages of composition. On the evidence available it is clear that individual suttas have to be taken on their own merits, though to some extent particular types of suttas have been vaguely generalised as belonging to distinct strata.

§11. This disparity in the dates of composition of respective suttas clearly implies a 'growth'. The stages by which the present anthology has come into existence underlie the various strata in Sn. Firstly there appears to have been an early nucleus of a more or less floating material quite similar to the traditional Brahmanic knowledge of pre-Buddhistic and early Buddhistic times on which were based the subsequent Dharma Sāstras and the early didactic literature of the Hindus. It is not only in thought and ideology that these early ballads of the Buddhists bear kinship with early Brahmanic literature (vide Katre) but also in phraseology and literary modes, all of which reflect a common background. This is not confined to the so-called 'unsectarian' ballads of Sn. which deal with general Indian or 'Arvan' teachings (embracing the ethical principles o

Brahmanic teachings and Upanisadic lore) but is much in evidence even in poems which are considered as being distinctively Buddhistic.

The earliest attempt at a collection as such belongs to a subsequent period. Many of the poems in the Atthaka Vagga and the Pucchās of the Pārāyana are of a sectarian character on a broad basis. Although the general outlook of these poems is rather wide there is something characteristically Buddhist underlying them, as contrasted with poems of common Brahmanic and Buddhist origin. There is no doubt that the Atthaka and Pārāvana Voggas and the Khaggavisāna Sutta formed the foundation on which this collection of suttas was built. In doing so the compilers have drawn freely from a floating tradition.

The transitional stage (or stages) of the formation of a nipāta was (or were) marked by the incorporation of these suttas as well as many others deemed as being truly representative of the Buddha's teaching. No definite conclusions can be arrived at regarding these intermediate stages. The present arrangement of the suttas in the Uraga Vagga (with the Khaggavisana Sutta occupying the third place in it) shows a certain amount of re-shuffling to furnish a more effective presentation of the suttas; for, Uraga with all the mysterious significance attached to it was probably considered as a suitable sutta to be placed at the head of the anthology.

As noted earlier (PBR 1, 3), the Uraga Vagga appears to be older than the next two vaggas. In view of the internal changes that have taken place in the various vaggas (ibid.) it is quite clear that the final redaction of Sn. has been preceded by several intermediate redactions (though they cannot be easily enumerated). The Culla Vagga and the Mahā Vagga have not come into their present form by any historical sequence. As suggested earlier (loc. cit.), the two vaggas (perhaps together with Uraga) probably replaced an older group (or vagga) which contained suttas of popular appeal. The final phase was marked by the prefixing of Uraga, Ratana and Pabbajjā (and Padhāna) Suttas to the three respective vaggas under the editorial hand of monastic redactors for the purpose of propagating the Dhamma.

§ 12. Thus, the results of this investigation can be briefly summarised under the two heads (a) tradition and (b) growth:—

Sets of suttas with reference to tradition:

- 1. Unsectarian:
 - (a) General Indian, 'Āryan' or Brahmanic (Upaniṣadic) New Delta 1972, pp. 12-90 and H.C. Care. teachings:
 - (b) The ascetic ideal.

- 2. Sectarian ('Buddhist'):
 - (a) Suttas purporting the Buddhist point of view;
 - (b) Suttas with special Buddhist interpretations of then-current themes, values and concepts;
 - (c) Buddhist Dogmatics; and suttas representative of the ecclesiastical phase.
- 3. Popular Buddhism; Suttas of the Life of the Buddha, and legend.

The main trends of growth:

- 1. An early nucleus of more or less floating material.
- 2. Several intermediate redactions incorporating suttas of popular Buddhism, dialogues, Buddhist ethics, life of Buddha and Buddhist worship.
- 3. A final redaction made for the purpose of propagating the Buddhist faith through its ecclesiastic representative, the Sangha.

Postscript

Prof. Jayawickrama had agreed to contribute a recapitulation of the salient features of his *Analysis* that would incorporate the findings of other scholars made during the last thirty years. Unfortunately, his sabbatical leave in the West will be largely spent in lecturing at Cambridge and at Carleton College, Minnesota. Moreover, he had been engaged in preparing a new edition of the *Kathāvatthu-aṭṭhakathā* together with a translation of the *Papañcasūdanī* (the Commentary to the Majjhima Nikāya).

However, since very few students have specialised in this field the Editor feels that he can but draw the attention of readers to those translations and studies that have appeared subsequent to the acceptance of the author's dissertation by London University in 1947. In passing, however, it should be emphasised that the discussion on linguistic terminology and pre-monastic features by Fausböll (A Collection of Discourses) and Chalmers (Buddha's Teachings) was substantially incorporated into Prof. Jayawickrama's Analysis.

All the English translations, in whole or in part, of the Sutta-Nipāta are listed in the Editor's Analysis of the Pali Canon (BPS, Kandy 1975) and the two subsequent supplements. Straightforward descriptive surveys of this text as a whole are best found in M. Winternitz, History of Indian Literature II (University of Calcutta 1933; Munshiram Manoharlal, New Delhi 1972, pp. 92-98) and B.C. Law, A History of Pali Literature I (London 1933; Bhartiya Publishing House, Delhi 1974, pp. 232-260).

A chronological analysis of the component parts of this anthology has been performed by G. C. Pande in his unique Studies in the Origins of Buddhism (University of Allahabad 1957; Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi 1974, pp. 51-65). A similar survey was conducted by G. F. Allen in The Buddha's Philosophy (George Allen & Unwin, London 1959, pp. 73-82).

Outstanding exegetical works on specific sections are represented by P. D. Premasiri, *The Philosophy of the Aṭṭhakavagga* (BPS, 1972), and Nyāṇaponika Thera, *The Worn-Out Skin* (BPS, 1977)—which includes the text and translation of the *Uraga Sutta*.

In her study of asceticism from Pali canonical and commentarial literature, *The Paccekabuddha* (E. J. Brill, Leiden 1974), Dr. Ria Kloppenborg has included a translation of the *Khaggavisāṇa Sutta* together with its Commentary (pp. 79-125).

Finally, in order to present what is hoped to prove an illuminating comparison with the Pali text, studies of and translations from the Sanskrit and Chinese recensions, together with related materials, are planned for eventual publication in the *Review*.

Editor